Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

TOWARDS BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF HIGHER EDUCATION

Editor:

CC-O. Agamnigam Digital Preservation Foundation,Chandigarh

MEHRAJ-UDDIN

Gandhi Memorial College Of Education Bantalab Jammu

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The University of Kashmir

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Prof. H.U. Hamidi
VICE-CHANCELLOR

FOREWORD

No doubt phenomenal expansion and progress has been made in the field of education in the country since Independence. Over 190 Universities have been established as compared to 50 only prior to Independence. Obviously education has developed quantitatively but, unfortunately, no serious attempt has been made to improve upon the quality of education. There is, thus, no denying the fact that educational standards are fast deteriorating. The main reason is that the educational system established by the British rulers continues to exist unchanged. The old system was evolved by the Britishers to serve their own ends. They simply wanted to turn out clerks to run the Government. The system was completely devoid of any well through-out educational philosophy. After independence certain Commissions were established to review and reorient the rotten system but no serious attempt was made by the educators and policy makers to revolutionise the system vis-a-viz social needs and changes.

The concept of education is changing fast. New ideas and innovations are in-corporated in educational system to make it relevant fruitful and meaningful all over the world. A prise-worthy step in this direction, however, has been taken by the UGC by establishing Academic Staff Colleges for the orientation of teachers in higher education. Teachers

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are the backbone of the educational system and they have to play an important role in shaping the future generations of the society. They have to develope the body, mind and spirit of the students.

In order to achieve this noble end Academic Staff Colleges have devised orientation programmes for the teachers. The courses comprise mainly education and society, subject upgradation and inovations in Methodology.

In 1988, Academic Staff College was established in the University of Kashmir and it may be said with a sense of deep satisfaction that the college is functioning satisfactorily. More and more University and college teachers are participating in the courses and they have been by and large benefitted by the said courses.

The Academic Staff College of this University has done commendable job by organizing a series of Orientation and Refresher Courses despite various odds and difficulties. The courses have been conducted both at Srinagar and Jammu and a good number of eminent scholars from different parts of the country have been invited to deliver lectures and make the courses fruitful and successful.

It is really gratifying to note that the ASC has not confined it's activities to arranging the Orientation Courses alone, but has helped to promote the values of education by organising debates & seminars on the issues of education. The present treatise is an outcome of one of such seminars.

I have gone through the present treatise on **"Towards Better Under-standing of Higher Education"**, compiled by the Academic Staff College, University of Kashmir. The book covers a wide range of subjects on Higher Education and other allied subjects. The important issues like `University Administration, UniversityAutonomy, Educational Psychology, Educational Management, Value Education, Teacher's Role and Examination Reforms' have been covered and discussed in detail. The papers provide an indepth

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study of various problems confronting Higher Education at the present juncture.

I hope the book shall be very useful to all those involved in the sacred cause of Higher Education.

Prof. Mehraj-uddin, Director, Academic Staff College, a dynamic and clear sighted educationist deserves congratulations for the commendable job. I congratulate his colleagues also in this regard.

I wish the Academic Staff College all the success.

(Prof. H.U. Hamidi)
Vice-Chancellor
University of Kashmir

Dec. 3, 1992

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PREFACE

The Academic Staff College came into existence to organize General Orientation and Referesher Courses for College and University teachers. The Refresher Courses are specialized in the subject concerned, whereas Orientation Courses are of general nature covering wide range of topics. The eminent scholars from different disciplines are invited to initiate discussion on the topics of general interest.

The present treatise TOWARDS BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF HIGHER EDUCATION is a modest attempt to compile papers collected from eminent scholars in the field of Higher Education, Educational Administration, Educational Research, Sociology, Psychology, Anthropology, Commerce, Management and literature. The papers cover a wide range of topics on various aspects of Higher Education and other related subjects. The topics are broadly classified into three groups. Firstly, the papers with Orientation value are grouped under SECTION-I. Secondly, all the papers with direct bearing on Higher Education are brought under SECTION-II Lastly, papers of general interest are discussed under SECTION-III of the book.

The eminent scholars who contributed research papers/articles on various topics deserve our special attention. We are extremely thankful to all of them for their excellent contributions. Our deepest gratitude to all the distinguished scholars for their support and active co-operation in this academic venture.

We have no words to express our gratitutde to Prof. S.K. Khanna (Vice-Chairman, University Grants Commission) Prof. H.U. Hamidi (Vice Chancellor, Kashmir University), Prof. Y.R. Malhotra (Vice-Chancellor, Jammu University) and Dr. D.P. Hira (Additional Secretary, University Grants Commission) for their inspiration and moral support.

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We are thankful to all the members of the Editorial Board for their valuable comments and suggestions. We are also thankful to M/s R.L. Sondhi and V.K. Sharma (under Secretaries, University Grants Commission) for their kind co-operation.

Ms Rohi, M/s Mohd Ayub Wani, Nazir Ahmad, S.U. Margray, N.A. Bandey and Muzamil Mattoo deserve our special thanks for their assistance and co-operation in this academic venture. We are also thankful to Mr. Rafi, Prop. M/s. Indian Printing Press for publishing this book without any delay.

Last but not the least special thanks are due to my wife Nighat and children Iqra, Yunis, Haider, Saima, Arooj and Salhia for being ignored during the compilation of this treatise.

MEHRAJ-UDDIN
(EDITOR)

Nov. 15, 1992

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INTRODUCTION

The Academic Staff College from time to time have made an earnest attempt to compile papers collected from the Resource Persons and other eminent scholars. This of course is a hectic task but very essential and useful so far as Academic Orientation Scheme is concerned. The present treatise viz. "TOWARDS BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF HIGHER EDUCATION", is also a modest atempt in this direction. The papers collected for the purpose of this treatise are very wide and varied in their scope and cover multi-dimensional issues pertaining to Higher Education, Social Anthropology, Urbanization, Adolescent Behaviour, Intution, Poetry and various other issues. The papers are grouped under different Sections with broad headings.

The papers on Academic Orientation scheme, Professional Development, Role of Education, Value Education, Educational Psychology and Examination Reforms have been grouped under Section-I. The papers on Higher Education, University Autonomy, University Organization, University Development, Accreditation and Performance Appraisal have been grouped under Section-II. Lastly the papers with general background viz. Fiscal Relations, Intuition, Poetry, Social Anthropology, Urbanization and Adolescent Behaviour are grouped under Section-III.

SECTION-I

The paper entitled *Academic Staff Colleges: An Overview by Mehraj-uddin,* (Kashmir University) gives a detailed account of Academic Staff Orientation Scheme (ASOS) highlighting its objectives and achievements. In this paper ASOS has been critically examined.

R.C. Mehrotra (Vice-Chancellor, Allahabad University) a well known educationist with far excellent academic career has made commendable contribution to bring excellence in the Higher Education. The author has always

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advocated for the over-all improvement of the teacher's lot and quality control in Higher Education. The author in his paper *"Professional Development of Teachers Orientation Programmes and Refresher Courses"* has highlighted the importance of General Orientation and Refresher Courses and has given a comparative analysis of the teacher's training in other countries. The author observed that our academic system seems to be unfair to the teachers, so far as it does not have a proper and comprehensive provision for their professional development. The knowledge explosion and technological revolution have necessitated arrangements for refresher courses for the College and University teachers, so as to keep them abreast with upto date developments in their field. Author observed that distance mode of education is highly appreciated and could be much more effective in providing facilities to the teaching community to go on adding continuously to their vista of knoweldge.

Zeyauddin Ahmed (Patna University), a senior Professor of Sociology and eminent scholar in his paper *"Role of Education in Modern India"* has emphasized two complimentary roles of education, viz. socializing the individual and building the society. He has further tried to elaborate the concept of education with historical back-ground of the present educational system in India. Education has been related to our social commitments of building a secular society with social justice available to all, removal of poverty and integrating the nation. Education, it is argued, play a vital role in realizing these objectives.

A.R. Mattoo (Kashmir University), a senior Professor of Commerce and an eminent scholar with an outstanding contribution in the field and wide experience in the Educational Management has pin-pointed various vital issues pertaining to Management in Higher Education. The author in his article, *"Managing Change in Higher Education"*, has discussed the concept of change and the techniques to be employed for managing the change in educational institutions. Educational institution as a part of the social system can't afford to be in isolation especially when the currents

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of change are flowing across the social environment. The rate of change, its direction and diffusion need to be identified with the purpose of predicting and controlling change in educational instituions. The author has briefly discussed several organisational change techniques viz. Management by Objectives (MBD), Organisation Development (OD), Survey of feedback, Behaviour modification (BM), Transactional analysis and contingency theory. The importance of each of these techniques for managing the change in educational institutions has been highlighted.

A.H. Zargar (Kashmir University), Reader in Education with deep insight in education and expertise in 'Creativity' has made valuable contirbution in the field by way of research and teaching. The author has raised some important points regarding educational system. He has identified some of the functions of education. He is of the opinion that the present educational system pays greater attention to intellectual development of students and development of values is not given serious attention. Need for inclusion of moral values in any scheme of education is emphasized. The author fortifies his arguments with the help of opinions of experts and expert committees. Various measures have been suggested for realizing the said oojective at different levels. Lastly, the author has emphasized the role of teacher in inculcating the positive values among the students.

A.G. Madhosh (Kashmir University), a eminent Professor with an out-standing contribution in the area of Education, Psychology and allied subjects has made a commendable contribution in his paper *"Educational Implications of Some Important Systems in Psychology"*. The author has discussed the salient features of three major schools of psychology viz., Behaviorism, Gestlt psychology and Psycho analysis. The implications of each of these systems for theory and practice of education have been extensively discussed. Behaviourism as pointed out by the author, holds a big promise for a learning situation. Skinner's behaviour modification and Hull's 'drive reduction theory'

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are of special significance. Behaviourists view education as a process of bringing about change in the behaviour of the learner. Class-room learning according to them is thus a programmed or engineered act and to make this act automatic, it is important to create a drive condition. Gestlt psychologists have on the other hand rejected the concepts of `trial and error' and `conditioning' in learning. They believe that learning takes place due to `insight' which gets awakened in the animals after they perceptually reorganize the learning situation. Human being, they assert, is a decision-making animal and not a mechanical instrument or a machine. According to Gestalists child should be the centre of all educational activities and every step taken in the name of education should lead towards realizing the potential which each child possesses. Psychoanalysts have attempted to understand human behaviour in terms of a fund of psychi energy called libidinal energy. The structure of personality according to them comprises of Id, Ego and Super-ego. Psycho-anaysts believe that an educational endeavour should liberate an individual child from unnecessary and unwarranted social and psychological pressures. Child's personal development, therefore, should assume greater significance. Learning according to psychoanalysts should be free from anxiety and tension and teaching should be threatless.

Nothing is more revealing of the purpose underlying a course of study than the nature of examiantions given at its close. The vital issues of the Educational System has been elaborated and analysed by *N.A. Nadeem* (Kashmir University). The author Reader in Education with an outstanding contribution in the field of education and commendable innovative potential in the empirical research has raised burning and important issues pertaining to examinations. The article *"Parameters of Examination Reform"* provides a deep insight in burning issues confronting the existing examination system. The major limitations of the existing form of education have been identified as `emphasis on rote memory', `subjectivity' and `poor content coverage'. Practi-

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cal guidelines have been discussed to overcome these serious limitations. Importance of a mixed type of question paper with emphasis on evaluating higher objectives of learning has been highlighted. The need for a proper training of the paper-setters has been emphasized. Other forms of examinations such as practicals and oral tests have also been discussed and suggestions have been laid down for their improvement as well.

SECTION - II

H.U. Hamidi (Vice-Chancellor, University of Kashmir), an eminent scholar with commendable contribution in the field of literature has raised issues pertaining to University Education and role of the University in the present social set-up. The author has discussed importance of granting freedom to the Universities and approach of the Government agencies viz-a-vis such autonomy. The author has analysed factors, which make the University autonomy a 'myth' rather than a reality. The author pointed out that dependence of the Universities on the Government for release of funds, interference in recruitment, agitation by the students and various other factors erode the very concept of University autonomy.

The Important issues regarding University autonomy have been further discussed by *Mehraj uddin* in his paper entitled, *"University Autonomy And Accountability: A Critical Analysis"*. the author has traced out the historical background of the University education and its objectives. The structure and functioning and the Universities alongwith concept of autonomy has been examined from the legal perspective. The factors governing establishment of the Universities, appointment of Vice-Chancellors and other key functionaries, impact of internal politics and external interference have been also discussed viz-a-vis University autonomy. The main factors responsible for erosion of autonomy have also been discussed briefly.

G. N. Siddigui (Former Registrar, University of Kashmir) with considerable experience in the University ad-

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ministration has high-lighted various aspects of University management and organization. The author in his paper, "*Management and Organization of Universities : A Challenge*" pointed out that University is one of the most complex of modern organizations and, therefore, most difficult to administer. In the University set-up powers for decision making vest in the various bodies, consequently University administration remains in a state of uncertainty. The system of University administration involves students, teachers and non-acedemic staff, and is therefore a collective venture to keep University organization going on. The author has discussed problems and challenges of University administration and has analysed short-comings of the University system. The main focus is on absence of prospective planning's, Financial constraints, lack of decision making and lack of co-ordination. Issues pertaining to selection of the Vice-Chancellor and role of the teaching community in the University administration have been also discussed.

Mohd. Akbar Ali Khan, A senior most scholar with wide and varied experience to his credit has made valuable contribution in the field of Higher Education. The author with vast experience in the Educational Administration has raised some vital issues regarding performance appraisal. The author in his paper entitiled, "*Landmarks in the University Development*" has traced the history of Universities right from its begining i.e. the medieval period. An effort has been made to show the systematic development of Indian Universities in the pre and post independence era. Reports of commissions, expert committees and decisions taken by the Government with regard to over-al functioning of the Universities have been reviewed. The roles, responsibilities and the authority vested in different bodies has been examined. Commitment of Universities towards the society is also discussed. Some light is thrown on the relatively new concepts of Open Universities, Distance Education and other non formal channels. Khan in his paper entitled '*Role of the Vice-Chancellors*' has discussed various aspects relat-

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ing to the appointment of the Vice-Chancellors, their role in the over-all development of the University and limitations so far as over-all functioning of the University is concerned.

K. M. Bhauddin (NIEPA, New Delhi) basically a engineer with commendable contribution in the field of higher Education and vast experience in Educational Administration has raised important issues regarding performance appraisal. The author has discussed the performance appraisal system (PAS) as proposed by NPE (1986). The system, as pointed out by the author should not be considered as a positive measure against the teachers. It should be rather taken as a formative step towards the development of the teachers. The appraisal system is not objectionable as it does not in any case involve the status or academic freedom. Status, the author believes, can be won by teachers through competance, hard disciplined work and unwavering commitament. Academic freedom, when interpreted in terms of seeking the truth and passing the same to others, necessiates that the teachers should guard against the deterioration of standards. The performance of a teacher is a match between his competance and the opportunity available to him to translate his competence into creative work. Since this performance is dependent upon several factors including Physical facilities, organisational climate and the system of reward and punishment therefore, it is important that teachers working in different situations and conditions should have their own criteria for appraisal. The objectives, role of the teacher, individual work plan, weightage and the steps to be taken for implementation of the proposed Performance Appraisal System (PAS) have been discussed in detail. Two rating scales one to be used by the Head of the Institution/teacher/colleague/ and the other to be used by the students for the purpose of assessment of teacher's performance have also been discussed.

Issues pertaining to accreditation of Institutions of Higher Education are very important so far as the survival of the Institutions is concerned. The issues in question have

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attracted attention of all those concerned with Higher Education. *S. Faroog* (Kashmir University) a eminent scientist has dealt with most of these issues with scientific temper in the paper entitled, *"Accreditation of Institutions of higher Education : An Appraisal"*. The author has discussed the need for accreditation of institutions of higher education. He has pointed out that for effective monitoring, NPE (1986) has also recommended to establish a system of accreditation. In this direction, Gwarchar Committee was set-up which submitted a detailed proposal to the University Grants Commission. The author has analysed this report with special reference to the objectives of accreditation and the qualitative criteria for assessment. The present status of the institutions of higher education in India has been also analysed and the author maintains that the multi-dimensional structure in the country for the purpose of evaluating the performance of the institutions exists more on paper than in practice. There is an urgent need to review the whole system and undertake steps for the establishment of `Accreditation and Assessment Council', on a uniform pattern.

Gh. Rasool (University of Jammu) a eminent educa tionist with remarkable contribution in the area of educational research has given a detailed account of Primary, Secondary and Non-formal education in the State of Jammu and Kashmir. The author in his paper *"Education Scenario in Jammu and Kashmir " Challenge Ahead"*. has traced out the historical background of the State Educational System with facts and figures. The author pointed out that the State continues to be educationally backward despite the fact that State Constitution provides for free education to all the permanent residents of the state and Government spends more on education than National average. The author is of the opinion that there are many factors which influence the educational system and of all these political system plays crucial role. The author pointed out that Recruitment Policy, Transfer Policy, Administration and Supervision Policy, Community Involvement, Redressal of grievances,

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Teacher's Training Programmes, Autonomy, Accountability and Institutional Evaluation etc. are also important factors which by and large influence quality and quantity of education in the state.

Khurshid Ali (University of Kashmir), Professor of Management studies with wide and varied experiejnce to his credit has made valuable contribution by teaching and research. The author with innovativ talent has raised important critical issues regarding teacher and teaching The author in his paper *"Activating Teachers for Better Performance"* has discussed Maslow's and Herzberg's theories of motivation and their implications for stimulating employees towards better performance. The author believes that for realising organisational and individual goals, it is important that an activating process is undertaken. This process shall sustain the activity and give a direction to it. The author concludes with certain recommendations. These include provision of necessary infrastructure in the educational institutions, respecting the worth and dignity of teachers, reviewing and reformulating programmes and plans in the light of feed back and nurturance of the talent by way of providing more opportunities.

SECTION - III

Ab. Wahid (Universituy of Kashmir), a senior professor of Economics, committed and dedicated teacher with reamarkable contribution in the field has given a detailed account of Centre-State financial relations. The author in his paper *"Inter-Governmental Fiscal Relations in India"* has pointed out that any un-satisfactory arrangement regarding the distribution of funds between the centre and the states in any country is bound to result in frictions and conflicts which create hurdles for the over-all development. The economic disparity, the author observed is the cause root of many current political problems. The author while giving a detailed account of the Counstitutional provisions regard-

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ing distribution of the financial powers between the centre and the states, has also analysed functions of the Finance Commission. The author has given a clear picture of 'Shared Taxes'. 'Grant-in-aid' and 'Loans'. The grievances of the States regarding financial distribution have been also identified and lastly author has suggested revision of entire scheme regarding th centre-state financial relations.

Qazi Ghulam Mohammed (University of Kashmir), senior Professor of Mathematics and a eminent poet has out-lined some important aspects of *"Intution and Reason"*. The author in his paper has pointed out that intuition and reason are two faculties by virute of which Prophets, Sages and Artists have tried to comphrend and interpret truth. Author has quoted a number of instances but has confined himsellf to the world of Mathematics.

G. R. Malick (University of Kashmir), Professor of English with commendable contribution in the field of Literature and religion has made valuable contribution in this treaties by contributing a paper entitled" Poetry and the Tyranny of Time." The problem of Time is of seminal importance in religious, scientific, philosophical and literary discourses. Nevertheless, the enigmatic nature of time has defied all efforts to define and understand it. The author seeks to present a panoramic view of the response of great poetry to the riddle of Time. This response ranges from the attitude of resignation and calm acceptance to petulant rage and open difiance with many other emotions included in the gamut. The poetry of Shakespeare, Omar Khayyam, Wordsworth, Ghalib, Hafiz, Yeats and Iqbal has particularly been drawn upon for illustration.

Ravinder K. Jain (Jawahar Lal Nehru University) Professor of Anthropology with international fame and far reaching contribution in the field has attempted to trace out the close relationship between History and Social anthropology. The author in his papaer. *A Relevant History for Social Anthropology*" has pointed out that Evolutionlism,

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Diffusionism and Functionalism served as a mode for developments in the social anthropological theory during the 19th century and first part of 20th century. The author is of the openion that past is always relevant in social anthropological research at least in three ways viz. the nation, third World and the International Community. The author concludes that development of a theory in social sciences suggest a new level of integration between history and social anthropology.

D. R. Singh. (TISS. Bombay) Professor of Criminology and Correctional Administration with deep insight in the field of Criminology. The author in his paper *"Urbanization"* has observed that rate of Urbanization, no doubt has increased, but the rate of increase is not as high as it is in other countries. The author observed that in India, rate of Urbanization and Industrialization has not been satisfactory despite the fact that Government Policy provides for the same. The author has also analysed co-relation between crime incidence and population variations.

Adolescence period is very crucial and important in the life of every individual. This period is characterised by imbalance, un-predictability and instability on the part of adolescents and presents countless problems. The various vital aspects of adolescent behaviour have been discussed in *"Theoretical Foundations of Adolescent Behaviour"* by *I. D. Bhatt.* The author Professor of Psycholoy in the Baroda University with national and international reputation has given a detailed account of historical background, adolescent period, place of adolescence and adolescent culture. Theories and studies on adolescent behaviour have been also discussed. The author is of the opinion that every individual needs certain amount of freedom for making decisions. This is true of adults who continously strive for self-determination and independence, but it is very crucial for adolescents. Further, the surrounding environment has very strong influence so far as the adolescent behaviour is concerned. The culture in which a child is reared includes

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social environment consisting of customs, rituals, ideas, behaviour of other members of the family/community which the children try to internalise.

Mehraj-uddin
Editor

Dec. 7, 1992

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SECTION - I

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1

ACADEMIC STAFF COLLEGES : AN OVER-VIEW

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I. THE PERSPECTIVE :

The quality control in Higher Education as well as creative teaching approach has been in a continuous demand right from the very beginning. The Commissions and Committees appointed from time to time recommended for techers training programmes and the New Education Policy of 1986 made a pointed reference to the need for teachers orientation and their prepartion at the beginning of the service as well as continuing education thereafter. It has been also found by the planners of Higher Education that teachers at all levels, particularly at the University level, have to be trained to be teachers and for this purpose University needs a continuous scheme of the training programmes.

The need and importance of the training programmes for teachers in highter education was nodoubt felt even in the pre-independence era, but after independence the intake of new entrants increased and knowledge explosion created a wide gap between the teachers and changing knowledge. The Educationists also found that the present system of education does not accord teachers a proper, economic and social status, opportunities for professional development, initiative for innovation and creative work, proper orientation in concept, techniques and value system to fulfill their role and responsibilities. The New Education Policy of 1986[1] emphasised that motivation of teachers is

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important for implementation of the ideas under-lying any Educational Policy.

The National Policy on Education regarded "Teacher's Training" as one of the most important. It emphasised that higher education provides people with an opportunity to reflect on the critical, social, economic, Cultural, moral and spiritual issues facing humanity. Higher education contributes to the national development through specialized knowledge and skills. Universities being at the apex of the educational pyramid, it has, therefore, a key role in producing teachers for the system[2].

A teacher occupies a position of significance at all levels of education, may it be primary, secondary or higher education. The succees of an educational system depends to a great extent on the methodology, competence, motivation of the teachers who are at the centre of the stage. His role may change but the importance remains unquestioned be it a formal or nonformal system of education[3]. In fact the Radha Krishanan Committee[4] had fully recognised the importance of this sector as early as 1948-49 and the Kothari Commission, sixteen years later devoted a considerable part of his deliberations on this issue.

Further, the need for improving the status of a teacher has been recognized right from the very begining and it has been also recognised that through professional and career development, teachers can fulfill their role and responsibility within the educational system. *The Mehrotra Commission*[6], pointed out that our academic system seems to be unfair to the teachers in so far as it does not have a proper and comprehensive provision for their development. The Committee observed that it is imperative to create opportunities for career and professional development of the teachers and provide incentives for good work. The Committe in view of the rapid increase in knowledge and fast developments in educational technology, recommended a programme of orientation courses for the new entrants to the teaching profession. The committee further observed that extremely fast growth of knowlege in almost all disciplines

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has necessitated arrangements for refresher courses of longer duration.

II. ACADEMIC ORIENTATION SCHEME

In pursuance of the recommendations of various Commissions and Committees on Higher Educationa, National Policy of Education and its Programme of Action. Central Government and University Grants Commission undertook several steps to improve the status and motivation of College and University teachers. The steps in this direction include revision of pay scales, creation of avenues for career advancement linked with performance, incentive for research and provision of training opportunities for the in-service teachers[7].

The University Grants Commission in order to establish Academic staff Colleges for the training of the teachers issued a communication on 22nd April 1987 along with necessary details of the scheme seeking proposals from the Universities for establishment of the Academic Staff Colleges. The Commission at the very out-set provided that Academic Staff Colleges may be established in a University in any one of the following formates :-

a) As a separate entity to be set up and designated within the University.

b) As a part ot existing Department of Continuing Education.

c) As a wing of College Development Council of the University.

The Commission identified 48 Universities for the purpose and issued necessary guidelines. The Commission entrusted the respoonsibility of finalising curriculum, method of operation, catchment area and appointment of the staff to the academic community by organizing workshops at six University centres in the country. A total of five workshops were conducted at Andhra University, Madras University, H.S. Gour University and Punjabi University. The draft recommendationas of the work-shop were finalized at the work-shops conducted at Bombay on 14th

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August 1987[8]. The Commission accepted the scheme and issued sanction for the establishment of 48 Academic Staff College throughout the country at-least one in each state.

The Academic Staff College scheme provides for organized and systematic academic staff development through general orientation grogrammes of 4-week duration for newly appointed teachers, Subject refresher courses for the educational functionaries like Principals, Heads of Departments and Members of Board of Sudies. The emphasis under the scheme is on the re-orientation of teachers to enable them to adopt new improved techniques of teaching and evaluation and to keep pace with changing knowledge in the era of knowledge explosion. The scheme for this purpose envisages the following :-

a) To organize specially designed orientation programmes in teaching methodologies, Pedagogy, educational psychology, etc.

b) To organize refresher courses for serving teachers to cover every teacher at-least once in five vears.

c) To organize orientation programmes by using the internal resources of Universities and by bringing a number of experts together :

d) To encourage teachers to participate in Seminars and Symposia etc.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE SCHEME

The basic objective of the Academic Orientation scheme is to in-built a sense of selflessness among the teachers so that they and their taught become a model for the society. Dhar and Singh[9], observed that basic idea is to have teachers who would help to arouse interest among the students and help to stimulate them to under-stand the true values of life. This will of course help them in their own development as well as the development of the society to which they serve. The *University Education Commission*[10], as early as 1949 mooted the idea of educating University teachers and observed that success of an educational

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process depends much on the character and ability of the teacher and hence in any programme of educational reform, the following steps are essential for its success:-

i) Transmission of the intellectual and ethical heritage of humanity to the young.

ii) Enrichment of intellectual and ethical heritage and extension: and

iii) Development of Personality :

The University Grants Commission[11] In view of the above mentioned ideas and recommendations of various Commissions and Committees appointed from time to time, identified the following as objectives of the Academic Orientation Scheme:-

i) *Significance of Education :*

To under-stand the significance of education in general and higher education in particular the global and Indian contexts.

ii) *Linkage with the Society :*

To under-stand the linkage between education and economic and socio-cultural developments in the society:

iii) *Role of a Teacher :*

To under-stand role of a College/University teacher in the national goal of achieving a secular and egalitarian society.

iv) *Skills of Teaching :*

To acquire and improve basic skills of teaching at the College and University level.

v) *Awareness about Developments :*

To be aware of the developments in his own subject and keep pace with the changes in the subject concerned.

vi) *Under-stand over-all Management :*

To under-stand organization and management of a College/University and to perceive the role of a teacher in the total system.

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vii) *Personality Development :*

To utilize opportunities for personality development, initiative and creativity.

viii) *Interaction among the Participants :*

To utilize the opportunity for an interaction with the Resource Persons and among the Participants themselves.

ix) *Generation of Resource Material :*

To utilize the opportunity of lectures, discussions and inter-actions for the generation of resource material.

Yashpal[12], while clarifying objectives of the academic orientation scheme observed:

> "Orientation is not concerned so much with the content of separate discipline of the teachers who come together. It has more to do with developing an appreciation through mutual interaction that in all disciplines there are many vistas, many doors to be opened. There is meaning and excitement in relationship. There are possibilities of over-laps and emergence of new disciplines. There is poetry in scientific theories and deep logic to language.... knowledge is increasing and while much of knowledge in any discipline is universal, it becomes our own when we immerse it in our own fermenting broth and particularise it with our examples, our own metaphor. That we can and should try to relate each other's work and insights through their disciplines.... and simultaneously with the concerns of the country and world at large".

Yasphal[13], further observed that College and University teachers have the special role and joy of helping to create great scientists, artists, poets, philosophers, thinkers and doers. That we (teachers) are important, we are special, but also agents for creating new under-standing, new insights, new relatedness. new wealth, new joys... and a calm self confidence. Besides, all this, we are also supposed to develop a true humility which comes through realizing how little of the knowledge we do know. He further

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observed that the Academic orientation Scheme can be very useful and its objectives to a great extent can be realized:

i) By sparking interaction amongst the participants... their talking to and telling each other about the meaning and excitement of their field.

ii) By bringing in others, who radiate the joy of being involved in academic pursuits.

iii) By putting before them a canvas to which they may add their special colours and hues.

iv) By Sharing with them differenct glimpses of the emerging Indian identity.

Yashpal concluded that while we try to do all this and more by making the participants familiar with examples of mechanics of doing their job, about teaching, testing, grades and scores and the dangers of over-teaching and find out and Let you know, but you also try to find out yourself or through study and discussion.

The extremely fast growth of knowledge in almost all the disciplines necessitated arrangements for refresher courses of longer duration so that every teacher is exposed to at-least one course in a period of five years. The main objectives of the Refresher Scheme are :

i) To expose teachers to newer materials and

ii) To learn better ways of disseminating the existing and new knowledge.

IV. COMPONENTS OF THE SCHEME:

The curriculum for the Academic Staff Orientation Courses is very flexible so as to include within its scope any current topic having relevance to teaching, teachers and society. The topics of the orientation scheme ideantified by the UGC in their guidelines are grouped into the following four components:

COMPONENT - A

Awareness of linkages between Society, Environment, Development and Education.

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The component aims at helping the teacher to understand the larger scope of education and the role of a teacher in the society. Some illustrative topics covered under this component are :

i) Secularism;
ii) Egalitarian society;
iii) National Integration;
iv) Multi-lingualism;
v) Multiple culture;
vi) Equality;
vii) Status of Women;
viii) Casteism;
ix) Environmental Pollution;
x) Poverty;
xi) Unemployment;
xii) Urbanization;
xiii) Modernization;
xiv) Rural Development;
xv) Youth;
xvi) Indicipline;
xvii) Role and responsibility of a teacher;
xviii) Value based education;
xix) Indian tradition;
xx) Creation of an Indian identity;
xxi) National literacy mission and
xxii) Futurology.

COMPONENT - B

Philosophy of Education, Indian Educational System and Pedagogy.

This component aims at imparting basic skills that a teacher needs for effective classroom teaching. Some of the illustrative topics are :-

i) Educational Philosophy: Aims and Objectives of education;

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ii) Learner and Learning Process, Human growth and development, Motivation, Group psychology, Learning Memory, Intelligence.

iii) Indian Educational System, Oganisation of Central Ministry, State Ministry,Department of Education and Local bodies.

iv) School Education: Pattern, System and Problems.

v) Non-Formal education: Need and Organisation.

vi) Economics of Educatin: Principles and practices.

vii) Sociology of Education: Education and Society.

viii) Higher Education: Objectives, Organisation and problems.

ix) Curriculum Design: Principles, Criteria of Utility, Variety and Flexibility, Principles of Individual learning, Readiness and Mastery.

x) Teaching Methodology: The teaching process, Methods of Teaching, Types of lessons, Lesson Planning. Skills in teaching, Micro teaching.

xi) Evaluation Methodology: Concept of Measurement and Evaluation.

xii) Class-room Techniques: Presentation. lecture, Discussion, Seminar, Use of black board.

xiii) Teaching Aids: Types of Aids, Appropriateness, Selection, Effectivity.

xiv) Material Production: Supplementing the Text Books, Assignments, Quizzes. Term papers.

xv) Reference and Study skills: Using a library, Reference skills, Self-study, Note making, Review.

COMPONENT C:

Subject Up-gradation

The component has two major thrusts. Firstly, to enable the teacher to translate the relevant svllabus into a detailed plan of classroom presentation and to effectively present the basic concepts at the appropriate level and secondly to make the teacher self-sufficient in keeping

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himself continuously abreast of the new knowledge in his discipline.

COMPONENT - D

Management and Personality Development

Under this component an attempt is made to familiarze the teacher with the organization and management of the College/University. An attempt is made to make the teacher under-stand interlocking of the various subsystems within the College/University and appreciate the role and functions of a teacher within the system. This part of Component D is organised in accordance with the programmes developed by the NIEPA. Under Component D, the teacher is made aware of the ways in which he may develop his own personality. The topics included are :

i) Logical Thinking and Discussion;
ii) Speech Training and Debating;
iii) Public Speakng;
iv) Communication skills;
v) Extra-curricular Activities;
vi) How to Run a Club/Society;
vii) Sports;
viii) Group Behaviour;
ix) Team Work;
x) Student Counseling.

The Academic Staff Colleges while adopting the scheme have made some minor variations which of course depend on the local demands.

Education does not exist in a vacuum, but if derives its life from the environment in which it operates. Social, economic cultural, historical and philosophical factors shape the educational systems. The topics under Component A have been addressed to all there issues. The topics under Component -B concentrate on the role of a teacher inside the classroom. Teaching, Learning, motivation and evaluation, form the main thrust under this component. Teachers work in a particular Educational System and most

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of them are often called upon to participate in the Educational management. It is essential for teachers to have elementary knowlege about various aspects of management so that they can realize limitations on the part of administration and can also perform their role as a administrator effectively, whenever an opportunity arises. Special attention is given to all these aspects under Component-C. Lastly, the topics under component-D are devoted to the subject upgradation. Four to five days are kept for this purpose, but it is difficult to do justice with this component in a short span of time.

The course contents for the Refresher Courses are devised by the Departments concerned. The main focus under the Refresher Courses is on the subject concerned. In some Universities specialized aspects of the subjects are taken into consideration. Since the participants of the Refresher Courses by and large are senior teachers, therefore the lectures, demonstrations and discussions are highly specialized.

V. MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The functioning of the Academic Staff Colleges right from the very beginning has been kept under constant supervision and their performance is monitores and evaluated periodically. The courses are also evaluated with the objective to suggest measures for further improvement. It is believed that for the success of the Academic Staff Orientation Programmes, it is necessary that every course should have an inbuilt monitoring and evaluation system. The Academic Staff Colleges in order to evaluate the courses have devised structured questionnaires and the participants at the conclusion of the course are required to give the opinion and comments on the said questionnaire.

The questions nodoubt pertain to various aspects of the course and that of the teacher himself, but nature and type of questions vary from College to College. The questions generally pertain to level of the programme, Quality of the programme, Communication skills, instructional methods, Teaching and reference material, Capability and deliv-

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ery of the Resource persons, Impact of the programme... Physical facilities and various other questions[14]. In self evaluation the questions, range from weakness/short comings of the teacher to contribution made in the field of research.In other words the evaluation revolves around the following aspects:-

i) Programme evaluation by the participants, which includes effectiveness or otherwise of the programme.

ii) Self-evaluation by the participants in terms of their own perceived attitudinal change and skill development.

iii) Formal evaluation of the participants in terms of their achievements etc.

iv) Informal evaluation of the course and the Resource Persons which usually consists in the open sessions and discussions of the participants with the Director and other staff members of the College. Some Academic Staff Colleges have also structured questionnaires for the evaluation of the Resource Persons.

The UGC in collaboration with NIEPA, New Delhi organise periodical meetings and workshops with the Directors of the Colleges to get first hand information about the functioning of the colleges. The UGC sponsored meetings and workshops, besides top authorities of the Commission are also attended by the leading experts of international fame. The over-all performance of the college is evaluated on the basis of information collected from the Colleges and other sources. The short-comings are identified and Directors are given an opportunity to explain their difficulties in their day to day functioning. The Directors in Close collaboration with NIEPA Experts in Higher Education work in a team spirit and detailed reports with concrete recommendations are made for the over-all improvement of the scheme. The main outcome of these meetings and workshops is that on spot decisions are taken by the Commission.

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The Academic Staff Colleges in the beginning faced a host of problems but with the passage of time, some of the problems have been attended to. A comparative analysis of the three reports of 1988-89, 1989-90 and 1990-91 reveal that in the beginning when the scheme was launched many dimensional problems occurred regrading the type of the courses, attitude of the participants, nature of the curricula, duration and timing of the course, attitude of the Principals/Heads and Management in granting leave for attending the course. However an appraisal of the present scenario shows that except a few problems, most of them have been sloved[15].

Initially, it was feared that participation by the teachers may not be that high and as a result the eligibility criteria for selection of the teachers was raised from 5 years to 8 years. The rate of the participation which initially was not satisfactory has gone up and Academic Staff Colleges are under increassing pressure to accommodate more and more teachers. The response has been so much from the teachers that even the senior members of the teaching community are showing interest for their participation in the programmes. This clearly indicates that Academic Staff Colleges have established their credibility and reputation and their programmes have gained popularity in the teaching community. *Rehman and Biswal*[16] found that Academic Staff Colleges have been able to establish their credibility in developing teaching skills of teachers in Higher Education. They Further observed that the programmes per se and Academic Staff Colleges have weathered the fear of 'hidden future' a great deal, over the past years. An overview of the Academic Staff Colleges and an over-all assessment of the programmes shows that colleges are going in a positive direction.

VI. REVIEW OF THE SCHEME:

The Academic Staff College scheme besides regular Monitoring and Evaluation is also reviwed from time to time by the Expert Committees. The UGC in 1990 appointed a Expert Committee to look into the working of the scheme in

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its entirity. The Committee in its meeting held on 4th May 1990 constituted four groups to study various aspects of the scheme. The Committee's main focus was on the following issues:-

i) Continuation of Academic Staff College;
ii) Action towards performance;
iii) Steps for improvement in academic programmes;
iv) Methodologies of conduct of Orientation and refresher Programmes;
v) Resource Persons;
vi) Evaluation of Resource Persons and Participants;
vii) Academic sustenance of Academic Staff Colleges through research and development: and
viii) Problems of infra-structure and hostel facilities.

The scheme by the end of February 1990 provided opportunities to nearly 21,000 teachers in Higher Education for General Orientation and Subject upgradation. The number by April 1991 reached to 35,000 teacher (18,300 in Orientation Programmes and 16,300 in Refresher Courses)[17]. The Academic Staff Colleges in the academic year 1990-91 conducted 464 courses (Orientation = 156 and Refresher = 308) and a total of 12,970 teachers (Orientation = 4,601 and Refresher = 8,369) availed the opportunity. The number of the participants attending Orientation courses has dramatically increased in the recent years as by the end of June 1992, the number of the participants reached to almost 20,000. The number of the participants attending Refresher Courses also showed encouraging response.

The Progress of the Academic Staff Colleges was recently reviewed in a Workshop on 'Pedagogical Skills' organised by the UGC, Common Wealth of Learning and Centre for Professional Development in Higher Education, Delhi University[19]. It has been found that a considerable progress has been made in organising Orientation Courses. The progress made by each college is an eye opener in this

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direction. The number of the participants who availed the opportunity is shown against each college[20]. Allahabad University = 17 (584); Andhra University = 21 (760); Aligarh Muslim University = 30(718); Bharathiar University = 22(533); Bihar Univesity = 5(127); Bombay Univesity = 23(560); Burdwan University = 3(108); Banaras University = 12(294); Calicut University = 22(700); Calcutta University = 7(263); Delhi University = 14(392); Devi Ahilya University = 26(819); H.S. Gaur University = 20(503); Gujarat University = 9(271); Goa University = 24(739); Gujarat University = 8(210); Guru Nank Dev University = 14(391); Himachal Pradesh University = 11(265); Hyderabad University = 20(548); Jamia Millia Islamia = 17(469); Jodhpur University = 21(482); Jawahar Lal Nehru University = 05(112); Karnatka University = 21(630); Kashmir University = 11(275); Kerala University = 24(843); Kurukshetra University = 18(700); Lucknow University = 6(318); Madrash University = 17(566); Madurai Kamraj University = 17(562); Marathwada University = 14(351); Patna University = 14(431); Pondicherry University = 24(630); Poona University 56(1806); Punjab University = 12(377); Rajasthan University = 19(609); Ranchi University = 16(635); Rani Durga Wati University = 19 (635); Surashtrha University = 17(427); Sree venkateshvara University= 16(397) and Utkal University= 12(378)

The information given above is only regardinng 41 Academic Staff Colleges. The figures show that near about 20,000 teachers got an opportunity to attend Orientation courses. The other colleges have also done commendable job in this area. Further, the colleges have also shown an upward trend so far as the number of the participants attending Refresher Courses are concerned[21]. The latest information in this respect (upto June 1992) is available only from 26 colleges which is shown against each college. Andhra = 21(636); Bombay = 13(691); Bihar = 5(106); Bombay = 13 (365); Burdwan = 6(124); Calicut = 27(759); Calcutta = 12(348); Devi Ahilya =23(669); H.S.Gaur = 7(94); Gauhati = 24(752); Goa = 13(382); Gujarat = 23(629);

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Hyderabad = 17(537); Karnatka = 16(607); Kashmir = 12(308); Kerala = 26(762); Madras = 22(522); Madurai Kamraj = 35(1140); Pondicherry = 10(487); Poona = 56(1806); Ranchi = 5(106); Rani Durgawatio = 18(416); Surashtha = 12(209) and Uktal = 10(344). The figures made it obvious that Refresher courses have also shown considerable progress throughout the country. The courses have become popular and senior teachers are attending the subject based Refresher Courses. There is a growing demand for specialized courses within the subject concerned.

Kapur[22], observed that staff development means development of pedagogical skill from better to far better. It also connotes positive development. He further observed that Academic Staff colleges have started in an earnest manner and colleges are doing a great effort to enhance the teacher's pedagogical skills. The UGC Expert Committee after an intensive survey of the functioning of the Academic Staff Colleges found that organization of orientation and refresher Courses has been widely welcomed and in-service training programmes have proved fruitful to up-grade the professional competence, class room performance and general awareness of societal and professional problems. The Committee recommended that the scheme should continue for 8th plan and necessary steps should b taken to put it on permanent footing. The Committee also recommended that the scheme should be strengthened and institutionalised. Howerver, in respect of some of the colleges, the Committee recommended extension only for a certain period.

The Expert Committee in order to make functioning of the colleges more meaningful made the following suggestions:-

i) **Proper Policy Direction:**

To ensure proper development of both Orientation and Subject Refresher Programmes, short and long term Plans for Academic Staff Colleges should be prepared on a regular basis and a proper policy direction should be given from time to time.

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ii) **Proper Co-ordination:**

To ensure proper utilization of the resources, there should be proper co-ordination. The innovations being carried out by Academic Staff Colleges and reading and reference material development by them should be properly co-ordinated so as to avoid duplication and help sharing the benefits of each other's efforts.

iii) **Proper Monitoring:**

To ensure proper development of the scheme, there should be its proper monitoring cell. The progress of the Academic Staff Colleges should be properly monitored through quantitative and qualitative information. The necessary data based feed back should be given to the colleges for their future development.

iv) **Proper Net-work:**

To ensure smooth functioning of the Academic Staff Colleges some mechanism should be created for their proper net-work. In order to carry out these activities a consortium of Academic Staff Colleges should be setup in close collaboration with NIEPA.

Review of functioning of Academic Staff Colleges shows that the colleges are doing commendable job in the field of Higher Education despite the following difficulties which colleges face in their day to day functioning:-

i) *Status of the Colleges:*

The scheme has not yet become permanent feature, despite the fact that it is functional right from 1987. The staff working in the colleges always look for other options, and prefer to work else where. The Piece meal extension of the scheme has effected its functioning and out-come.

ii) *Co-operation of the Principals:*

The Academic Staff Colleges on many occasions have to re-schedule or postpone the programmes to accommodate maximum possible teachers from the Degree Colleges. However, it has been often found that College Principals do not relieve the teachers for the course and consequently number of the participants goes down considerably.

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iii) *Flow and Adjustment of the Funds:*

The Academic Staff Colleges also face difficulty in respect of timely flow of the funds. The scheme nodoubt is sponsored by the UGC on cent percent basis, but funds flow through the University concerned, which on many occasions is delayed and the colleges are forced to post-pone their programmes. The accounts of the courses conducted are submitted to the University for adjustment against the advances drawn, which usually is a time consuming process and consequently further flow of funds from the UGC is also delayed.

iv) *Resource Persons:*

The Academic Staff Colleges nodoubt always try to attract best possible Resource Persons but due to limited resources the colleges fail to attract best talent. The Colleges are not in a position to provide minimum possible facilities to the Resource Persons.

v) *Resource Material:*

The Academic Staff Colleges should also attempt to prepare their own Resource Material and some of the colleges have succeeded in their attempt, but the fact remains that due to limited funds, for the purpose of 'Reading Material', most of the Colleges have not succeed in this venture.

vi) *Infra-structure Facilities:*

The Academic Staff Colleges in most of the Universities are without infra-structure. There is no hostel facility and offices invariably are housed in some Department of the University. It is difficult to get accommoodation for specific course/courses and it is very expensive to get accommodation on yearly basis, consequently, the participants face difficulties in terms of their accommodation etc. and they lose interest in the course. The Academic Staff Colleges in most of the cases have not been in a position to equip the office.

vii) *Follow-up of the participants:*

The Academic Staff Colleges are not in a position to

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maintain a close contact with the participants of the course, consequently the colleges do not get the feed-back from the participants who attended the courses.

VII CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS:

Knowledge has increased tremendously and it continues to increase every moment. The sweeping changes in the modern technology has mounted constant pressure on our day to day functioning and necessitated training programmes for all those engaged in 'generating' and 'transmitting' knowledge. *Dube*[23]. observed that Higher Education is under great pressure and while demand is increasing, the resources are decreasing. There is a serious confusion about social goal of education and consequently planning becomes faulty.

Higher education in the light of technological revolution is losing its relevance and the Universities in the recent years have failed to fulfill their task. The objectives of Higher Education viz. Generation of knowledge. Transmission of knowledge, Extension work and Personality Development are hardly realized. Further, Higher Education still relates to class room situation and in this situation the aids are blackboard and chalk. Pedagogical skills are very important for a teacher and majority of the teachers are not even aware about the various developments in the pedagogical skills. *Sharma*[24], observed that the purpose of teacher's skill development should be based on research as without research development in this field is impossible.

Keeping in view the importance of a teacher, his role in the social setting and necessity of his exposure to the changing technological revolution to enable him to fulfil his role, the Commissions and Committees appointed from time to time recommended for Teacher's training, which emerged in the form of Academic Orientation Scheme.

The main objective of the scheme is to provide an opportunity to the Teachers of the colleges and Universities and to enable them to interact on various current issues of vital importance and to promote their innovative and crea-

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tive approach in teaching and research. The scheme is in operation since 1987 throughout the country and till date has provided an opportunity to more than thirty-five thousand teachers. The scheme has been critically examined from time to time and its has been found that the scheme by and large has proved beneficial for the teachers.

The scheme has been criticised by a section of the teachers on the basis of its utility and the cost involved. However, an objective evaluation of the scheme has proved its usefulness beyond any doubt and the cost involved is quite less as compared to the achievement under the scheme.

In order to ensure the effective functioning of the scheme, the following recommendations are made by way of suggestions:

The Academic Staff College scheme should be regularized and strengthened. The courses should be organised on regular basis. The Colleges showing poor performance should be closed.

The Academic Staff Colleges should be fully equipped with modern facilities and College should serve as model for innovation and training of the teachers in the catchment area.

The Advisory Committee of the Academic Staff Colleges should be given the discretion to select subjects for the Refresher Courses on the basis of need and demand of the teachers in the catchment area. Further, while alloting subjects for Refresher Courses. The Director should be taken into confidence.

A consortium of the Academic Staff Colleges should be formed at regional level to monitor and co-ordinate activities of the colleges in the region. The consortium shall be also helpful to identify subjects for refresher courses in the area.

The functioning of the Academic Staff Colleges should be reviewed after every five years and steps should be taken to improve the quality of the programme. The quality of the programmes should be maintained at every cost. The per-

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formance of the colleges should not be assessed on the basis of number of courses conducted but quality of the courses should be main consideration. The eveluation of the course by the participants should be taken into consideration so far as over-all performance of the college is concerned.

The Academic Staff Colleges should be provided with Hostel and Transport facilities. The participants attending the course face many difficulties. the non-availability of accommodation is always main problem.

Flow of funds to the Academic Staff Colleges should be made smooth and speedy. A separate mechanism should be devised for adjustment and settlement of the funds so that 'statement of expenditure' is submitted to the UGC, well in time.

The Academic Staff Colleges while organizing Orientation and Refresher Courses should always devise innovate methods. The participants should be encouraged to participate actively in the course and inter-action of the participants with the Resource Persons and participants amongst themselves should be given top preference. In view of the increasing role of the Academic Staff Colleges in raising the professional competence of teachers, positive steps should be taken to promote and stimulate research, in teaching learning process, evaluation, re-structuring of courses and innovations there on.

The deliberations of each course should be recorded and produced in the print from. The funds should be liberally allocated for producing Reading Material. The Reading material produced in a particular college should be distributed among all the colleges. The Reading Material so produced shall directly reflect the performance of the college.

The Academic Staff Colleges should remain in constant touch with the participants and follow-up feed back should be utilised for the over-all improvement of the college programes. Further, persons of eminence only should be invited as Resource Persons.

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In view of the importance of teacher's training and role played by the Academic Staff Colleges in this direction, the recommendations of the UGC Review Committee should be implemente in toto.

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2

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS ORIENTATION PROGRAMMES & REFRESHER COURSES

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Introduction

Although pedagogical training has always been considered absoultely essential for a teacher at the primary and secondary levels, yet the same has not been required for the lecturer beginning to teach at the tertiary level. Many reasons for these could be ascribed for this difference. The first one which comes to mind is that most of the teachers recruited for the University system possess a long research experience during which they might be expected to have imbibed the best method of acquiring the existing knowledge on a topic in such an intensive manner whcih could help them to advance it further by removing the possible doubts and providing a better perspective of the topic. Inculcation of 'Discipline with Dissent' is the most difficult task of a teacher at the tertiary level and these habits could be expected to be better generated through worthwhile research experience rather than through a form of pedagogical training. Another factor which in my view is more important than some pedagogical training for qualtiy teaching at the tertiary level is a real grasp of the latest knowledge of the topic and the enthusiasm of the teacher in inspiring the students to learn more by creating an interest in the subject, by indicating simultaneously the possible doubts or alternative explanations.

In spite of all the above factors, the need for some type of pedagogical training for teachers at the University level

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has been felt rather strongly since 1950's. With the fast expansion of enrolment of students and opening of Colleges in remote areas in a state like Rajasthan with often a single-teacher department, the incumbent recruited for the job naturally often feels at sea as he has no example to follow and no senior teacher from whom he could even seek some guidance. Faced with such a situation, the Director of the College Education and the Dean of the Faculty in the University of Rajasthan to which all the Colleges in Rajasthan were affiliated launched in 1963 a collaborative 'Orientation Programme' for the new teachers for 4-5 weeks to acquaint them with the general pedagogical requirements even at the tertiary level and to give them some idea of how to manage the facilities (for example, experimental work) particularly in a discipline of experimental science. The present author was even more shocked by the need for some sort of such training in the evaluation work by teachers in 1958 at Gorakhpur University. Having introduced internal assessment as a component of the final assessment of studens at the M.Sc. Part I level, practice was adopted of getting the answer books evaluated by two internal examiners independently. However, the sporadic variation noted in the markings of the two teachers in the same department were almost unbelievable. Admittedly these were all young teachers who had joined the University without any teaching/evaluation experience but the habits once form, as exhibited in the above experience, tend to linger throughout life. However, as this aspect of teachers' training has not been emphasized from any quarter, the writer continues to be rather sceptical of our total evaluation system.

The teaching community even in advanced country like USA was shocked in late 1950's by the spectacular success of USSR in space technology in1957. Realising the importance of having a close look at the curricula and teaching methods, a crash programme was initiated for the same in USA by involving the best authorities (even noble laureate) and efficient teachers to formulate a more invigorating curricula and writing textual materials in collabora-

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tion both for theory as well as for practical instructions. Although excellent guide-books were also prepared, yet the need for an active teacher training programme to cope with the new ideology was not only realized by the programme was implemented in a surprisingly vigorous manner aiming at exposing all the teachers to new curricula in a particular discipline. A powerful body like the National Science Foundation took an active part in the whole programme which was followed on similar lines (albit with some slight differences) in U.K. also.

In India, the programme of Refresher Courses was initiated by the NCERT for the School level and at the College/University level by the UGC through the mediation of an active officer Dr. B.D. Laoria who happened to visit many such centres in USA and UK during the early 1960s. This programme was actively pursued at least in the science subjects in a highly vigorous manner in 1960s throughout the country and the assistance of experts from USA and in some cases from UK was available for our programmes of Summer Schools held in different universities. Having participated in this programme by holding dozens of refresher courses in different fields of Science at the University of Rajasthan, a suggestion was made to the author by an eminent chemist Prof. King of North Western University who was deputed by the National Science Foundation for Monitoring the porgramme in India that a stage had come to evaluate the impact of the programme in India also with a view to improve and strengthen it further in the coming years. Being convinced of the importance of the suggestion of Prof. King, I immediately rushed along with hime to Prof. D.S. Kothari, the then Chairman of the UGC, who also in his usual enthusiasm accepted the suggestion and took steps for the same beginning with an *Indo-US Seminar* in *Chemistry* at *Srinagar and Banglore* in *1969* followed by similar exercises in other disciplines of Science in the next 2-3 years. Excellent reports with highly valuable suggestions came out of these bi-national conferences but as often happens in our country, these reports have received a very

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little notice and in fact even the valuable programme of refresher course for teachers was almost given up in the country during the 1970's, in spite of the *ever-increasing* need for the same all the time.

Enhancing need for Refresher Courses :

As a result of penetrating studies under the general heading 'Science of Science', it has been established on the basis of a number of statistical studies (e.g. the number of discoveries/papers published annually) that knowledge in every discipline is doubling itself exponentially and this 'doubling period' has been estimated to be as short as less than 5 years for fastly developing fields like Biochemistry and Biotechnology and about 10-11 years for disciplines like pure Mathematics. The impact of this new conclusion has not been generally fully realized by the academic community and I am, therefore, presenting a few figures in a little more detail. Assuming that knowledge in any field, say in 1950 was 1 UNIT (arbitrary), then taking a sufficiently long 'doubling period' of 10 years, the knowledge in that discipline would be as below :

	1950	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
Total World knowledge in arbitrary UNITS	1	2	4	8	16	32

The above table shows that whereas in 1950, the teacher/post-graduating student was expected to have command over 1 UNIT of knowledge, his counterpart would have been expected to possess 16 UNITS of knowledge in 1990. This final figure is terrifying in itself but as the total knowledge is expected to become 32 UNITS in 2000, the knowledge during the decade 1990-2000 would be increasing at the average rate of 1.6 UNITS per year. This shows that for a teacher to remain up todate in his discipline, he will have to learn *annually* 1.6 times of the total amount of knowledge with which he himself or his counterpart was supposed to have mastered in 1950.

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The above is certainly a very challenging situation and might appear almost impossible for an average individual on his own. it is in this perspective that often the qualification of any graduate/post-graduate is now-a-days considred to become almost obsolete or incomplete within a period of 5 years and hence in additon to his individual continuing efforts particularly with the help of ever-increasing review articles, etc., it has become essential for some short of refresher courses/training after every 5 years. This would apply equally well to professionals in any field of human activity but should be considered absolutely obligatory/inevitable for those in the teaching profession.

In addition to the above exponential growth in the quantum of knowledge, revolutionary advances have been taking place in the means of communication/dissamination of knowledge which have provided extraordinarily effective and novel techniques for the teaching/learning interactions. For example, besides the use of slides/projections and audio/video films etc., the capabilities of computers are becoming availble in various forms. Fortunately, the students even at the school level in our country also are now being exposed to some form of training in the use of computers and hence, many of them are prepared mentally to take advantage of learning through this powerful facility, which is becoming more and more effective every day. As far as I am aware, very little emphasis, if any at all, has been given to these aspects of emerging 'Educational Technologies' in our refresher programmes for teachers and it is high time that attention is paid in such directions also.

Recommendations of Mehrotra Committee leading to the establishment of Academic Staff Colleges :

Having had the privilege of enjoying first-hand thrill of such refresher programmes for a long time, the Committee constituted by the UGC and the Government of India under the Chairmanship of the author, mainly for proposing changes in pay-structure of the teachers at the tertiary level, reemphasized the need of refresher courses for the

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teachers in all the disciplines as a part of their professional advancement with a view to attract and retain the best talent in the teaching profession under the second term of reference for the above committee. It may, therefore, be appropriate to reproduce here some of the recommendations of the above commitee on the topic of 'Professional Development of Teachers':

The Committe is of the view that at present, our academic system seems to be unfair to the teachers in so far as it does not have a proper and comprehensive provision for their professional development. It is imperative to create opportunities for career and professional development of the teachers and provide incentives for good work. The following steps are suggested to attain this :-

Orientation Programmes for New Teachers :

In view of the small annual intake of new faculty earlier, pedagogical/professional training was not considered essential or feasible for the teachers at the tertiary level; they were expected to get trained on the job under the supervision of their senior colleagues. However, with the rapid increase in numbers and unplanned growth of colleges in far-flung places and also in view of fast developments in educational technology, a programme of orientation courses for the new entrants to the profession appears to be highly desirable. These courses (3-4 weeks duration) should be specifically designed for the new entrants before or soon after they start teaching. The main emphasis should be on developing methodologies of teaching in the concerned subject.

Refresher Courses for Teachers in general :

Further, the extremely fast growth of knowlege in almost all disciplines has necessitated arrangements for refresher courses of long duration (about five weeks). These should be so scheduled that every teacher is exposed to at least one course in a number of (say 5) years. These refresher courses should focus upon two main facets :

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(i) exposure to newer materials, and

(ii) better way of dissminating and existing and creative an active interest in new knowledge.

A system should be evolved for mutual evaluation of the participants and resource personnel in the refresher programmes. Incentives like additional grants for preparation of teaching material and research could be provided for consistently excellent performance. The performance at these programmes should be considered at the time of promotion.

The organization of orientation/refresher programmes on the vast scale envisaged by the Committee must receive a very high priority by the U.G.C. in view of their crucial importance for raising and monitoring the standards of teaching.

The Indira Gandhi National Open University should be requested to provide for a variety of courses, in as many disciplines as possible, to encourage continuous self-learning process amongst teachers. To enable the teachers to take advantage of such courses, the registration fees and other required in-puts should be provided to them.

Participation of teachers in seminars, symposia and conferences should be encouraged and facilitated.

Adequate facilities should be provided to teachers (giving preference to younger faculty) for study leave with pay and/or teacher fellowship etc., to enable them to pursue M.Phil/Ph.D. programme, which should be strengthened and restructured so that these provide useful inputs in improving their capabilities as teachers.

Institution of Academic Staff Colleges and the Role of Distance Education :

As mentioned above also, it is a welcome development that the Academic Staff Colleges have been established in 47 instituions. However, a continuous review of their functioning and achievements as well as points of weakness are essential in a improving continuously challenging program-

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mes of this type. For example, attention may be drawn towards a review of the Orientation Programmes of Academic Staff Colleges by M.M. Rahman and K. Biswal published on page 11-15 in March 30 issue of the 'University News'.

It appears that the hands of IGNOU have been too full to give attention to the recommendations of Mehrotra Committee for providing leadership in the field of continuing refresher courses for teachers through the Distance Mode of Education. Naturally the other Open Universities in the States as well as the Correspondence Institutes of various universities have paid hardly any attention in these directions.

It is almost obvious that the Distance Mode of Education is highly appreciated and could be much more effective in providing facilities to the teaching community to go on adding continuously to their vista of knowledge. Hopefully as reported for the Open University in U.K., its broadcasts and televised programmes have proved highly beneficial to many other sections of the society in addition to the students directly enrolled with the University. Although no survey has been made in India, yet it is to be expected that our teaching fraternity has also taken advantage of such programmes from the IGNOU as well as the UGC.

In view of the high-multifier effects of any improvement in the store-house of knowledge of the teachers, it is high time that well-planned programmes should be initiated through Distance Mode of Education for the benefit of teaching community both in pedagogical aspects as well as in the subject matter contents. This will have an additional advantage of providing a continuous learning programme for the teachers without the need of necessarily taking periodical leave for participation in the refresher programme.

With the introduction of the above Distance Mode of Education, the face-to-face refresher courses could be of shorter duration and may be better focussed around activities of the following types :

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(i) introduction of some difficult topics (like that of thermodynamics in Chemistry) by different participants and resources personnel, followed by a discussion of the effectiveness/weaknesses of the individual presentations - thus providing some form of so-called practice teaching in conventional pedagogical programmes;

(ii) discussion on the current curricula etc.; &

(iii) working out together some new experimental instructions in the field of science and more relevant examples from relevant regional/national background in social sciences.

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3

ROLE OF EDUCATION IN MODERN INDIA

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Education has long been considered to be an effective means of social control and a very useful tool of change and development.

The value and necessity of education from the point of view of individual as well as society has varied from time to time in different societies in different levels of evolution. The protagonists of education believing in the development of individual personality and rationality regard education as a value in itself. The underlying assumption of this school of thought is that society recognising the value of conscious enlightenment and nationality and learning accords a high status to the educated. The purpose of education, therefore, according to is the socialisation of individuals to the cultural heritage and acculturation of personality so as to become good members of the society.

From the point of view of individual, education provides the necessary skill qualification to fulfil certain socio-cultural, economic and political functions consequently improves his socio-economic status.

The second argument, on the one hand, lays emphasis on the usefulness of educated persons to society at large and, on the other hand, keeps into consideration the aspect of social change and transformation on desired lines through the medium of education. Thus, education, in their view leads to the social development and progress. With the recognition of the need to direct the process of social change and development towards certain desired goals, education

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has come to be increasingly regarded as a major instrument of social planning. The Indian Education Commission rightly observes, 'The realisation of the country's aspirations involves change in the knowledge, skills, interests and value of the people as a whole'. This is basic to every programme of social and economic betterment of the country. If the change 'one a grand scale' is to be achieved out violent revolution there is one instrument and one instrument only, that is to be used : education[1].

The term education has been taken from the Latin word *'educare'* which means to bring up, or bring forth. Hence the underlying idea of education in the West is not merely to lead the pupil in the acquisition of knowledge and skill but also to bring him up or develop in him those habits and attitudes which may enable him to face the future successfully. According to Plato the end of education was to develop in the body and in the soul all the beauty and all the perfection of which they are capable, or to develop in short 'a sound mind in a sound body'. In line with the classical school, Aristotle thought that to educate meant 'to develop man's faculties, especially his mind so that he may be able to enjoy the contemplation of the supreme truth, goodness and beauty in which perfect happiness essentially consists. Thus, education doesn't mean simply to teach someone to read or write, or to memorize some passages or ideas. By doing so the mind is merely stuffed with outborn ideas and views without kindling the real search for knowing the truth and unfolding the secrets of life and the universe.

When we cast a glance on the pattern of education being imparted in different societies the most noticeable feature seems to be that education is basically considered to be the initiation of the young in the ways and life of their elders. Among the primitives, as well as the civilised communities education seems to be "an attempt on the part of the elder members of human society to shape the development of the coming generation in accordance with its own ideals of life".[2] Thus considered education is basically a

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conservative agency which is formally concerned with the transmission of the social heritage to new generation. Viewed from the angle it is an agency of social control.

It is readily admitted that in India there has been a long tradition of education. From time immemorial scholars from Persia and Greece, and from China and Tibet came to this land, and read in the famous universities of Taxila, Nalanda Kanjeevaram, and such other seats of knowledge and wisdom. But the content of education primarily had been religious and traditional. Subject like theology, philosophy, philology and astronomy were taught to the students. Even when the modern education was established in the 19th Century, Indian education was largely humanistic and philosophical rather than scientific and positive. Great emphaisis was laid on the character building of the students and there was direct and personal relationship between the teacher and the taught. In ancient India we find *Gurukul* where the students used to live with their masters for years and not only were taught to read and write, or given some formal education in different branches of learning but were also moulded according to the taste and personality of their teachers. No doubt due to various reasons education was personality of their teachers. No doubt due to various reasons education was not very common and remained confined to a few high caste families, which had not very common and remained confined to a few high caste families, which had a long tradition of education and learning, and were in a position to afford the luxury of education. Usually besides the Vedas, philosophy, grammer, logic and medicine were taught.

During the period of Muslim rule, too, education and learning flourished. There were a number of *Madarasas* Maktabs, and libraries, and the rules gave generous patronage to the scholars, poets, and other literary men. There was in substance no change in the outlook of people towards education, because the Muslims, like the Hindus, were traditional in their outlook and laid great emphasis on religion and philosophical education rather than on sci-

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ence, rationalism or secular education. Before the advent of the Britishers in India :the large number of indigeneous schools were religious in character and regarded knowledge as the means of spiritual growth".[3]

The Britishers brought with them English, Christianity, Science & Technology, western philosophy and a new pattern of education. Through the development of printing machines, availability of paper, and other means of easy communication and transportation education spread very rapidly among the masses, and virtually there was no monopoly of any caste or section of society on education. The purpose of this education was basically to train up a handful of Indians to act as a liaison between the ruling people and the masses. By 1830, Lord Macaulay had clearly laid down the British policy of imparting education to the Indians, "We must at present do our best to form a class who may be interpreters between us and the millions whom we govern, a class of persons Indian in blood and colour but English in tasts, opinions, morals and intellect"[4]. Through this new education the British were gradually able to build up a large civil service in which educated Indian were able to find new types of jobs which gave them security and tenure. Consequent upon Macaulay's Minute regarding the educational policy of the Indian Government in future. Lord William Bentinck issued a communique wherein it was stated that the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among the natives of India, and the funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on English education alone. Thus the proclamation marked a turning point in the history of education in India. In the next few years there was a rapid increase in the enrolment in the Government schools where English was the medium of instruction.

Thus, while in 1835 English was established as the medium of instruction in the Government schools, in the year 1844 it was declared that preference in recruitment in Government services would be given to those educated in

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English. Thus, the aim of education became employment in Government services. It could have never been anticipated that in caste-ridden society, with contempt for manual labour, there would be great eagerness on the part of the higher castes to seek clerical employment through a literary education. No doubt, this policy was responsible to create in the long run the problem of 'educated unemployed' in the country.

After the achievement of independence in 1947 it was felt that the Government of India should adopt a national policy of education, fix the national goals and the entire educational system, tools and technique and contents of syllabi at different levels of education should be geared in line with the national policy to meet the new challenges facing the society. We have now to look upon our work from a broader national outlook. Apart from the general objectives of education which are common everywhere, i.e., harmonious development of the individual's personality, building up his character and helping him to prepare himself to face the problems of life, each country has to identify the national goals and organise its educational system to achieve them.

The leaders were of the unanimous opinion that the national policy of education should be promotive of national conciousness in the youth and inculcate a deep love for the motherland and pride in the cultural heritage. To achieve this purpose it was felt that education should be imparted through the mother tongue of the people. It emphasised scientific education and scientific research. In future emphasis was to be laid upon vocational education and technical education and research, in order to help economic growth to eliminate poverty, and to provide decent living for all the citizens of the country.

With the recognition of the need to direct the process of social change and development towards certain desired goals, education has come to be increasingly regarded as a major instrument of social change. One of the expectations from this directed goal of education is that it will bring about

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reduction of inequalities in society. It was on the argument that the universal Declaration of Human Rights included education as one of the basic rights of every human being. The Constitution of UNESCO directs its efforts to achieve the ideal of equality of educational opportunity without regard to race, sex or any distinction-economic or social.

The framers of our constitution have declared our society to be a secular democractic republic, and have laid down a number of fundamental rights for its citizens. Our national goals emerge out of the wisdom of our fore-fathers and the present requirements of society. A number of national goals have already been identified and our educational system should be directed in such a way that it becomes instrumental in the achievement of these goals.

1. The first and foremost national goal is the establishment of a secular society in a country where a number of races, cultures, religious groups and ethnic elements are present. We have to develop that degree of toleration and broad-mindedness among the people of our society which may enable us to love and co-operate with each other. Education must be imparted to the children in such a way that social harmony and adjustment between different groups, castes and communities is possible.
2. Another important goal is equality and social justice. It is the duty of society to provide equal opportunities to the weaker sections of the society and the minorities. No doubt a number of welfare measures have been taken to improve the socio-economic conditions of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. But it must be admitted that justice has not been done to the millions of people who are living in the rural areas. Our educational apparatus should be so equipped that it enables the new generation to develop a sympathetic understanding of their problems. We must be more considerate to our women who are still subjected to discriminations and different types of social and economic drawbacks.

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3. The third important goal is nation building and economic development. Millions of people in our country are living below the poverty line, and a lot of people have therefore a very poor standard of living. Education can play a vital role in this connection. It can facilitate the process of modernisation and rapid industrialisation of the country so that the quality of life of our teeming millions ultimately improves. It must be recognised that we have so far failed to relate education to production, consumption and saving. Our education should make every educated man a self-earning man depending upon his own talent and skill to earn his livelihood. Economic growth will not be possible unless the family situation at home and education at school inculcates the habit of hard work and attitude of 'Cost-mindedness'. Also there must be a change in the attitude towards physical labour which is so essential for educated young men of our society. We must inculcate in the younger generation that there is no disgrace in doing a physical work and there is a dignity of labour. Education must help the children to develop the attitude of saving and avoidance of wasteful expenditure so that there is capital formation which may promote economic development.
4. Last but not the least, is the goal of national integration. India is a land of various castes, groups, religions and races. This diversity among the people of India is a social reality and must be accepted. The aim of education should be to promote values which will help these diverse groups to lead a harmonious life. Our young generation has to be taught to pay equal respect and consideration to the members of the scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and women. Through proper education we can create a proper atmosphere of understanding and goodwill among different sections of our society. Untouchability, Casteism, Communalism, regionalism, eve-teasing,

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bride-burning and such other social evils can be wiped out from this country once for ever.

Education in modern India has, therefore, to play a vital role in different spheres of life, and we must realise that education and education alone can go a long way in making a prosperous and happy society. All the resources of knowledge, enthusiasm and experience must be pooled together in order to wipe out illiteracy and open to all the facilities of obtaining a suitable education. A system of education must be devised by which the most promising young men, without distinction of caste, creed, race or religion are especially trained so that they contribute to the welfare of the society to the best of their ability. Hence the future of our society is basically dependent upon a balanced system of education.

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MANAGING CHANGE IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTE

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Change is the law of nature. In other words nothing is constant. Everything of whatever nature, form, size, structure, or matter is subject to change. The process of change may vary in extent or degree and may be slow or rapid. But change would be there, instant or delayed. Thus change is an undeniable fact of human existence. The importance of change has been defined by Alvin Toffler in his book FUTURE SHOCK, as, "Change is the process by which the future invades our lives and it is important to look at it closely, not merely from the grand perspective of history, but also from the vantage point of living, breathing individual, who experiences it".

In organisations, especially educational institutions, it is extremely important that change is identifiable, predictable and controllable, besides being carefully planned and introduced. Instead of allowing change to occur as a natural consequence of the passage of time, knowledgeable Managers/Principals/Administrators work towards creating conditions that will help the growth and ultimate survival of educational institutions.

In the educational setting the livng individuals that Toffler refers to are, student groups and teachers. In a University or College the Vice-Chancellor or the Principal needs to look closely at the change and prepare himself for it. For a better appreciation of the concept of change it would be appropriate to look into the various aspects of change and change management.

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There are a number of special characteristics of change. The first is, the rate of change, or the speed with which change occurs. The second is, the direction of change. The third one is diffusion of change, far beyond its point of origin.

If we look at the educational scene, there is enough evidence to show that change has occured at a greater pace now, than ever before. Since education is closely related to social change, any changes that take place in the social environment will have immediate impact on education. This is also because education as an open system, draws its clientele directly from the environment and its products will go back into the environment.

Many times, educational administrators fail to recognise the speed at which changes take place and their impact on organisations.

Direction of change is the term used to define the way present conditions will alter future events. It may be possible that the change may not be in the desired direction. At that time it becomes necessary for educational managers to cope with the direction of change and make suitable alternations in their programmes and perspectives. When a large number of students entered colleges and universities, there was an identifiable change. The predicted direction of this change was - increase in the number of educated people, and their increased participation in the economic activities of the country.

However, after the change had really occured, it was observed that more and more educated people were unemployed and they became a burden to the developing economy. This is an example to show that unless a manager is aware of the direction of change, direction of change and rate of change can cause significant problems for organisations.

Often, one change causes other changes. diffusionof change means, change is spread out over a wider area than anticipated. Diffusion of change is frequently called the domino effect. To illustrate, a change in college curriculum

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would lead to change in the nature of teachers recruited, change in the teaching methods and change in the evaluation system. Another example could be a change in the method of production and the nature of products produced, leading to change in the curriculum of a technical institution. Further, development of a number of textile industries, in and around a city, may lead to the establishment of textile schools in the vicinity of these industries.

Principals must constantly recognise the diffusion of change throughout the organisation. A change in the nature of students admitted might lead to various types of changes, including a political atmosphere in the college, nature of student activities, etc.

It is virtually impossible to change any part of an organisation without affecting, to some degree, all of its other parts. Therefore, rate of change, directions of change and diffusion are all important and usually affect mangement at the same time.

There are many types of change that affect organisations. These types of changes can be grouped into three major categories :-

1. Technological changes involving new equipment, material or facilities, are the easiest changes to identify.
2. Social change occurs when a large segment of population adopts a different set of values.
3. Internal changes include the changes that affect day to day work activities and are directly under the management's control.

MANAGING CHANGE

Many principals have to accomplish work, not only through the efforts of others, but also through planning, organising, implementing and controlling change. Principals must recognise the human processes involved in change and known to use a variety of techniques in introducing change.

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Planned changes being not only with identifying need change; but also with the recognition that people are to be affected. Success or failure of any change may depend on teachters', students', parents' and the public's reaction.

Many people seek new experiences. In an educational setting, if a teacher is asked to teach the same subject to the same class for a large number of years, he/she loses interest and often makes teaching a routine job or may abandon the classes. There is a growing body of evidence, that employees who are provided a variety of activities with minimum successive repetition of same task, show a great degree of job satisfaction. This observed need for new experiences should be a valuable clue to the principals while allocating jobs to teaching and non-teaching staff.

However, if a change is perceived as a potential or possible threat, it is resisted. Therefore, a principal is faced with two conflicting types of human behaviour, the need for change and the resistence to change, both acting simultaneously. While some resistance, to change is logical, a great deal of it is emotional, which is a result of fear of failure, loss of security, or lack of understanding of possible benefits. A teacher who thinks he/she is not capable of handling a higher class feels insecure to accept this change.

Management science have provided various ways and means of resolving this problem :

1. Encouraging participation of teachers, students and other concerned people in planning and implementing change, is a useful method of minimising resistance.
2. Change can be introduced in small increments. An illustrated could be, handling extremely indisciplined and militant student groups. Here a principal should carefully introduce the changes as a step-by step process in small increments, such as encouraging their participation in college activities, slowly enforcing attendance to the class and their participation in learning.

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3. Education and training which demonstrate the benefits of planned change, help to reduce the resistence to change. Teachers might find introduction of the semester system or the concept of autonomous colleges to be a threat, as they feel it might increase their work load. At this stage, it becomes necessary for the educational managers to expose them to the experience of other teachers who are already involved in such programmes. This helps to convince the teachers and resistence to change can thus be reduced.

Several organisational change techniques are available in management science which would help principals to manage change in college setting.

1. Management by objectives, (MBO) in its simplest terms, is systematic approach to setting organisational goals, and determining how well they have been attained. Here, every person defines the objectives and the period of time required to achieve intended goals. The progress is reviewed periodically and the results are evaluated.
2. Organisational development (OD) describes many long range approaches to changing the basic ways an organisation operates. OD plans a set of specific actions. It is not a technique, but only a systematic approach.
3. Survey of feedback is a technique developed by the Survey Research Centre at the University of Michigam. This system includes a questionnaire used to gather information about an organisation. This data is given to the managers of the organisation with interpretations provided by an outside consultant. While employees of the organisation are encouraged to participate.
4. Behaviour modification is a technique based on the well known theory of respondent conditioning by Skinner. Respondent conditioning involves reward-

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ing the desired behaviour and not rewarding the undesired behaviour. In a real work situation, when we would like to change the behaviour of students towards a desired goal, it is necessary to introduce an incentive measure for the good deeds as a token of recognition. This encourages them to continue behaving in a certain way and at a later stage, the incentive can be slowly withdrawn. By this time behaviour modification would have taken place.

Transactional analysis has gained a very wide popularity during recent years. It is a simplified way of analysis and explaining human behaviour.

Contingency theory is based on the concept that there is no one best management system for a set of conditions and for all environments. This theory means that the most effective approach to the management of an organisation depends on the situation at any given point of time. It emphasises using several approaches to the study and solution of management problems simultaneously.

INNOVATION AND CREATIVITY

It is necessary for principals to make use of creative intelligence of teachers and students in managing their institutions. There are a good number of principals who fail to listen or respond to concepts developed by their subordinates and discourage innovation and creativity. In order to implement change in any organisation, principals have to encourage and give due importance to innovative ideas developed by their subordinates.

Principals are also managers of change. Recognising, and determining its probable direction, speed, and extent of diffusion are vital management functions. A manager can be effective only when he learns to observe, understand, predict, plan, implement, control and evaluate change. Many times, principals are very comfortable with situations that are familiar, minimising their recognition of the necessity of seeking new or better ways of getting things done. Satisfaction, that feeling of everything being comfortable, can, in a world of change, be one of our worst enemies.

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VALUE-EDUCATION

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The main function of education is to promote a balanced development of physical, mental, social, emotional and also the spiritual aspects of the personality of an individual. Education has not only to impart information and to teach skills to the student but it has to inculcate the basic values of humanism, democracy, socialism, secularism, national and emotional integration. Lodge is of the opinion that what-ever broadens our horizon, deepens our insight, refines our reactions and stimulates our thoughts and feelings, educates us. Every thing which influences human behaviour and personality is education. In the wider sense then, education is life, and life is education.

With the help of education, man has achieved unprecedented heights in the field of science and technology, and at the same time, this development has to a great extent influenced our entire life. A very negative effect has been the erosion of values. There is a general deterioration of cherished values among both the students and the teaching community. This is because the present educational programme has been dominated by the academic activities and the emphasis is only on intellectual achievement. Development of values has unfortunately not been given serious attention. The external technological advancements carry within them a growing sense of inner emptiness unless they are accompanied by a value orientation of the human intellect and the will. In this regard Dr. Radhakrishnan has remarked, "Science supplies us with the tools of civilization

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but the guidance for their use does not come from them." Therefore, in the present age of science and technology value education is the need of the hour. Several educationists in India and abroad have also stressed this idea, as they feel that there is crisis of character in different spheres of life. Radhakrishan (1949), held the view that an important task of education is its concern with values in education in addition to search for truth through scientific and scholarly pursuits. Recognising the importance of inculcating necessary moral and spiritual values among the youth, the Kohtari Commission (1964-66) has remarked, "Modernisation, if it is to be a living force, must derive its strength from the strength of spirit. The weakening of social and moral values in the younger generation is creating many serious social and ethical conflicts. it is, therefore, necessary and urgent to make our education value oriented."

The commission recommended the introduction of education in moral, social and spiritual values in all educational institutions in a well planned manner. But as ill luck would have it, nothing has been done so far and presently the crisis of values stands as an "Immobile Colossus".

The National Policy on Education (1986) lays stress on the need of radical reconstruction of the educational system to improve its quality at all stages and pays greater attention to the cultivation of moral values and to develop closer relation between education and the life of people. Keeping this in mind the role of value education becomes all the more important. In the words of the late Prime Minister Mr. Rajiv Gandhi, "The New education system would seek to reinforce the country's old values. Above all, it must be able to maintain our Indianness against the deluge of materialism." Therefore, new education policy has, highlighted the growing concern over the erosion of essential values and an increasing cynicism in society has brought to focus the need for readjustment in the curriculum in order to make education a forceful tool for the cultivation of social and moral values. What exactly is Value Education and what are its general objectives?

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Value education in all its comprehensiveness involves developing a sensitivity to values, ability to choose right values in accordance with one's conception of the highest ideals of life, internalizing them, realising them in one's life and living in accordance with them. It is, therefore, a life long quest. According to Nazareth and Wapls (1979), "Value Education must meet the demands to set" Fresh goals for attainment in the personal, emotional, social, cultural moral and spiritual fields of human development." Keeping in mind the meaning of value education, its general objectives may be stated as under :-

1. developing the appropriate sensibilities - moral, aesthetic, cultural, spiritual - in children;
2. helping the student to understand and appreciate the values of democracy, secularism, equality and scientific temper;
3. enabling the student to develop a concern for and commitment to them and also providing opportunities for students to practise and live by these values.

The NPE says, "In our culturally plural society, education should foster universal and eternal values, oriented towards the unity and intergration of our people. Such value education should help to eliminate obscurantism, religious fanaticism, violence, superstition and fatalism". Keeping in view the pious recommendations of the NPE, we should try to foster the following values through education:-

Secularism, international cooperation, peaceful co-existence, pursuit of excellence, equality, national intergration, protection of the environment, removal of social barriers, scientific temper, equality of sexes, equalitarianism, democracy, socialism and our common cultural heritage.

The pursuit of these values is not related to particular moral or religious doctorine. This point is important in the context of Indian situation where there are a number of religions and our constitution clearly states that, "No religious instruction shall be provided in any educational institution, wholly maintained out of the state funds."

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The development of values is not a simple affair, it is a complicated process because the value development is influenced by a network of environmental factors i.e., home, community and society at large. An individual evolves his/her values from the family, the school, the mass media and a host of other voluntary associations. Values are also nurtured in a particular society and hence are governed by its outlook. Parochial values are developed in a conservative society whereas in a liberal society a magnanimous value system is evolved. Our country which encompasses diverse outlooks of various communities, has evolved a liberal value system. In the words of Agnihotri, "the values it evolved know no limits of geography, history or sociology. These are cosmopolitan in the true sense of the word, not meant for citizens of a particular state only, but for human beings as such, hence are human in essence."

Education is a sub-system of the society, it reflects the existing social order but in the period of crisis it has a more creative role towards setting the things right. It is therefore, obvious that schools and other educational institutions have an important function towards the value development of children. In this context the Education Commission (1964-66) has rightly stated, "the school atmosphere, the personality and the behaviour of the teachers, the facilities provided in the school will have a large say in developing a sense of value... The school assembly, the curricular and co-curricular activities, the celebration of religious festivals of all religions, work experience, team games and sports, subject clubs, social service programmes all these can help in inculcating the values of co-operation and mutual regard, honesty and integrity, discipline and social responsibility."

As regards the imparting of value education according to different age groups, the recommendations of the Sri Prakasha Committee Report of 1959 seem to be comprehensive and valid. The committee is of the opinion that at the elementary stage, the school assembly should be held for a few minutes in the morning for group singing and that two

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periods per week should be set aside for moral instructions. Further, the attitude of service and "work is worship" should be developed in the child through the school programmes.

At the secondary stage the committee has recommended two minutes silence after the morning assembly followed by the reading from the scriptures of the great religions of the world. The committee also suggests one hour a week for moral instructions and the joint celebrations of important festivals of all the religions.

At the university stage Prakasha Committee suggests group meetings, silent meditation and a general study of different religions. Further, a post-graduate course in comparative religions is recommended. The students at post-graduate level should be provided with fairly long periods of social service. In the organization and conduct of such service, considerable attention should be given to the learning and practice of spiritual values.

Last but not the least is the role of teacher.

In any system of education, teacher is the most important person. He is a friend, a philosopher and a guide. He is the torch bearer and an ideal for his students. For the cultivation of values teachers have a vital role to play. They have to present themselves before the pupils in such a manner that their behaviour becomes an ideal for their students. Students consciously or unconsciously immitate the values, ideals and habits of their teachers.

Hence a teacher has to be a real teacher i.e., he has to order his behaviour in accordance with the highest standards and ethics of his profession. This will contribute to the creation of a school climate that is conducive to the development of high values and ideals. Radhakrishnan, Tagore and Zakir Hussain are the examples of such great teachers who influenced generations of youth of this country.

The teacher's influence lies in what he is and what he makes of himself. He is constantly watched by his students.

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He is the observed of all the observers and what he does tends unconsciously to be imbibed by the students. The teacher thus provides a model - good or bad - of behaviour for his pupils.

In the end, let me quote Professor Taneja, "Today's youth are faced with several hang-ups and are suffering from prejudices of class and caste divisions, corrupting influences of money and power, open defiance of the norms of justice and equity resulting in social chaos and libertarian ideas eating into the sanctity of family relationship. The value oriented education will make them aware of the implication of these tensions and create in them resilience of mind to fight these and lead a life of mental equipoise. Education, which does not awaken the young against moral and social turpitude, does not serve its real purpose, however much it may succeed in filling their minds with facts and formulae."

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6

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF SOME IMPORTANT SYSTEMS IN PSYCHOLOGY

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The begining of 20th Century witnessed a bigh turmoil in the thinking of great social scientists particularly in Germany and United States. Psychology was subjected to a rigorous analysis and as a consequence different schools of thought emerged. Most important to name were Behaviourism, Gestalt Psychology and Psychoanalysis. Since psychology has been directly as well as indirectly contributing to various fields connected with human welfare, it would be important to find how different systems of psychology do affect such fields. Education is the case in point. We are interested in identifying observable, measurable and predictable benifits, a particular system of psychology holds for an educational situation. In a way education as a system is exposed to various influences through its major components of 'Theory of Education' and also 'Practice in Classroom' we shall see how three major system of psychology viz., Behaviourism, Gestalt Psychology and Psychoanalysis influence both educational thought and practice.

1. Behaviourism

Behaviourism helds a big promise for a learning situation. Education being an honourable learning situation, Behaviourists must have their say. Right from the father of the school Dr. J.B. Watson (1878-1958) and his close associates like Edwin B., Holt (1873-1946), Paul Weiss (1879-1931), Lashley (1800-1958) and later Behaviourists like Tolman (1886-1959), C. Hull (1884-1952) and B.F.

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Skinner (1900-1990) all have contributed heavily toward concretizing goals of education and measures to achieve them. Dr. Watson was basically an environmentalist. He believed that there existed certain innate patterns of behaviour but in actual practice their role was either limited or totally insignificant. And largely as a radical environmentalist, Waston rejected concept of instincts as the initiators of behavior. He asked, "Has the boomerancy an instinct to return to the hand of the thrower? ... well why does it return? Because it is made in such a way that it must return ... Man is made of certain kinds of material — put together in certain ways". There is no need to think in terms of inheritance of aptitudes or of 'mental characteristics'. Watson and his associates believed strongly that whatever the genetic background, environmental stimulation in the shape of conditioning, could produce any behaviour. The behaviourists battle cry was, "Give me the baby and I will make it climb its hands in construction of buildings of stone or wood.... I will make it a thief, a gunman a dope friend. The possibilities of shaping it in any direction are almost endless. Even gross anatomical differences limit us far less than you may think.... Make him a deaf mute, and I wil built you a Helen Keller. Men are built and not born". This belief changed the very course of psychology which was now to be defined as :

> "Psychology as the behaviorist view it, is a purely objective experimental branch of natural Science. Its theoretical goal is the prediction and control of behaviour. Introspection forms no essential part of its methods, nor is the scientific value of its data dependent upon... interpretation in terms of consciousness.... The time seems to have come when psychology must discard all reference to consciousness; when it need no longer delude itself into thinking that it is making mental states the object of observation.... Our psychological quarrel is not with the ... Structural Psychologist alone. The last fifteen years have seen the growth of what is called Functional Psychology.... The differ-

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> ence between functional Psychology and structural Psychology as the functionalists have so far stated the case, is unintelligible. The terms sensation, perception, affection, emotion, volition are used as much by the functionalist as by the structuralist.... We advance the view that behvaiourism is the only consistent and logical functionalism."

It is possible to write a Psychology, to define it.... as the "Science of behaviour", and never go back on the definition; never to use the terms consciousness, mental states, mind, content, will, imagery and the like.... It can be done in terms of stimulus and response, in terms of habit formation, habit integration, and the like.... The reasons for this is to learn general and particular methods by which behaviour may be controlled.... Those who have occasion to apply Psychological principles practically would find no need to complain as they do at present time. If this is done, work.... on the human being will be directly comparable with the work on animals.

The emphasis is clear, the objective is straight and the commitltment is strong. Perhaps this very claim was put to test and successfully so by B.F. Skinner who developed the concept of BM (Behaviour modification, 1953) which was to become the very defining property of an educational endeavour. Skinner's belief that the proper goal of education is to 'maximize knowledge'. This type of learning helps student to build a repertoire of responses which would in turn help him to have full grasp of the subjects, What is needed is to teach specific behaviours form which the knowledge is inferred. In other words it means a student whom we consider to have knowledge should emit responses which are appropriate to an academic area, like for instance how he speaks, diagrams, draws and solves the mathematical equations and so on. Even Hull's 'intervening variable' offer no basic deviation, his (habit strength) concept has drawn very closer to the concept of educational achievements and curricular gains. A special mention of Hull's drive-reduction theory would be quite in order. Hull's

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major postulate has been his emphasis on presence or absence of drive from a learning system. He through of a drive as an activating froce which is rooted in a biological need. So if a hungry cat is placed inside an experimental cage, he is destined to expend more energy running from corner to corner than a well-fed cat placed in a similar situation. If besides hunger, thirst is also added, the total drive shall increase without any external incentive. The educational implications of the drive-reduction theory are far and wide, for onething no meaningful education can be concieved in absence of drive. A drive being the function of 'Drive Condition' (such as deprivation of incentive) can be equated with the 'Reinforcement Principal' as proposed by B.F. Skinner. Now let us see precisely how does Behaviourst school of thought, in psychology affect theory and practice in education.

A. Theory of Education

The very philosophy of education readily accepts Behaviourism to the extent that the objectives of education are empirically formulated so that their attainment is not a matter of speculation but a clear picture of measurable output. The objectives can be read as follows :

(1) That an educational situation changes children behaviour from a base line to an observable level.

(2) That the change in behaviour is seen both in quantity and quality.

(3) That classroom learning becomes a programmed or engineered act.

(4) That learners are participating actively in the system instead of passive recepients of teacher's deliberations or lectures.

(5) That proper level of *Drive* or Drive condition is created to make the learning an automatic or in built system.

(6) That the emphasis is on the skill part and as such

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children would be competent in bringing forth a skill-based or productive culture.

(7) The Curriculum is prepared in such a manner that the main objective served thereby is to better human condition. It is not to have "sound min in sound body" but to develop techniques to use human as well as environmental resources fully in affecting society productively, the difficulty with the "sound mind in sound body" objective is that no one can ever think of what is "sound mind" or what is sound body. Psychology seems to have lost its "mind" at the hands of Behaviorists and "body" rediscovered in terms of its anticident condition to a smooth behavioural act (like for instance, Watson, asking for one dozen healthy children-bodily fit).

B. Practice of teaching

The other component of an educational situation happens to be a teacher. Like making the learning situation most effective, Behaviourism would expect a teaching situation also to be most effective. Unless teaching practice involves an objective method of imparting instructions, assessing achievements and communicating results, there can be no good teaching. This is perhaps the reason that in many situations teaching machines were produced to control the learning system. Programme learning, Micro-teaching, Simulation, Arrangement of Reinforcement schedules etc. are only a few measures to deal with a learning situation effectively. In a more clear cut way the teaching practice is influenced in the way as under :

(1) That lessons are to be planned and prepared with perfect knowledge of curricular objectives.

(2) That all possible explanatory material is arranged in advance.

(3) That lecture is enriched by use of software, films, film strips, audio/video cassettes, tapes, transpirancies and other material.

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(4) That assessment of the attainments is done objectivelly and has to be continuous process. A list of learning outcomes are to be prepared quite in advance and after the learning process has completed its function, the outcomes are seen and evaluated.

(5) That an effective 'feed-back' system is develcped to have the learners test themselves periodically to their own satisfaction.

(6) That even whole proces of teaching including the teacher is subjected to immdiate evaluation and examination by the participants or learners themselves.

2. Gestalt Psychology

A school of psychology which seems to have no interest in analysis and wants to perceive things as whole and emphasize the form, shape, figure etc. should naturally be the school of Gestalt thinking. Max Wertheimer (1880-1943), Wolfgang Kohler (1887-1967) and Kurt Koffa (1886-1941) are three major advocates of Gestalt thinking. The basic focus of this ideology is human experience. This experience can not be broken into smaller parts. In case people do, the experience will lose its meaning. An experiencing individual visualizes his environment with a certain shape, an identificable figure, an impressive form and this must influence his thought and behaviour simaltaneously.

Gestalt Psychologist further conceived a Pschological field. It is this field which governs the behaviour of an individual. This field is more or less self organized into a "definite thought changing patterns". More precisely the field consists of two poles, the 'Ego' and the 'Environment'. This would mean that as all of us know that we are surrounded by an environment and any action must be a result of interaction between these two poles. "These two poles are like the poles of a magnet, with lines of force or stress between them. they are in constant and shifting interaction". At time it may appear that an individual is existing in one kind of environment but behaves in an another kind.

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For example a person being in classroom may actively think of his home and plan way to tackle his home problems; but physically he is in the classroom and not in his home.

Out of most important concept, learning appears to be very interesting subject with Gestaltists. Gestalt Psychologists especially Kohler worked out an aceeptable theory of learning. His experiments on chimpanzees showed him that animals learn not on the bases of trial and error (Thorndike) or conditioning (Pavlov & Watson) but due to "insight" which gets awakened in the animals after they perceptually reorganized the learning situation. Yerks (1927) has extensively experimented upon animals and finally presented a clear description of insightful learning. He believes that insight in different organisms may reveal common characteristics like :

(1) Survey, inspection or persistent examination of problematic situation.

(2) Hesitation, pause, attitude of concentrated attention.

(3) Trial of more or less adequate mode of response.

(4) In case initial mode of response proves inadequate, trial of some other mode of response, the transition from the one method to the other being sharp and often sudden.

(5) Persistent or frequently recurrent attention to the objective or goal and motivation thereby.

(6) Appearance of critical point at which the organism suddenly, directly and definitely performs the required adaptive act.

(7) Ready repetition of adaptive response after once performed.

(8) Notable ability to discover and attend to the essential aspect or relation in the problematic situation and to neglect relatively variations in non-essentials".

The concept of insight clears 'Gestaltists' position on

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'stimulus-Response' hypothesis. There can't be a response directly connected with a stimulus. A word of expereience intervenes in between so that the final behaviour is not the function of stimulus but the product of intervening variable. The intervening system has to be the organism (O), the experiencing individual or the self. The self is conscious and human consciousness can not be over-ruled. Human being is a decision-making animal and not a mechanical instrument or a machine. The direct implication of such thinking should be an active involvement of congitive dimensions of self in any activity concerning human development. Education as such should be the major dimension of life activities where Gestalt principle should be applicable in more than one way. Let us see how does it affect theory and practice in education.

A. Theory of Education

(1) Child has to be centre of all educational activities. Child is a dynamically organized individual and is consumer of the things that go to store his mind. He has to further edit the experienced material and finally react in the form as perceived fit by him. It is, therefore, to suggest that we must begin with child, and enrich his experience so that responses we get are not only individually pleasant but socially effective as well.

(2) Each individual has a field. This field contains field force which activate a person at a point of time. How are these force, namely ego forces and environmental forces arranged, how can these forces profitably be brought to affect a learning situation, should be a job for experts to find out. But this is clear that an individual taken away from his field is a great loss to begin with.

(3) Every child has a potential and every educational effort should be to realize this potential. This can be done if the child is exposed to challenges, demands and problems. It is believed that insight might dawn

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up on him and be able to solve the problem, answer the challenge and fulfill the demands in the best satisfying way.

(4) Creativity is one of the exciting human phenomenon. Behaviorists have no answer to creative response. It is here that Gestaltists emphasize cognitive phases of human development. After all education is a situation which should prepare human beings to present innovative, original creative answers to day to day problems. A student is not a taker or consumer only, he must learn to give and to contribute as well.

(5) Classroom learning must provide curricular activities in a form that is understandable besides being attractive to eyes. The curricullam should be stimulating and demanding to make sufficient use of intellectual properties of an individual. Trial and error learning of Thorndike or SR learning of Watson is only allowing a person to work in an incompetant situation and waiting for his failure. If learning situation is rich - means that it possesses clues, hints, insightful occasions to provide solutions, it would difinitely end with remarkable achievements.

B. Practice of Teaching

Methodology of teaching must also underge a change. It is to be said that the teacher has to be an important agent of education. He has not to transmit information or knowledge only but to transform the learner. A learning situation is to be offered so that :

(1) A student understands information, comprehends it well and is able to use it whenever or wherever necessary.

(2) That Audio/Visual material is uded to allow pupil to develop a gestalt of learning situation. This will help them to have an experience of all relevant components integrated into a meaningful whole.

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(3) That occasions are created when pupils learn to synthesize this educational experience, particularly 'knowledge; and arrive at resonable conclusions and generalizations.

(4) That a deliberate effort to evaluate educational achievements is done on most rational bases. The pupils are made fully aware of the material for which they are to be examined. This will help them to offer creative and original answers instead of "standard responses" to be evaluated by a machine.

3. Psychoanalysis

Sigmund Freud (1856-1989) is called the father of childhood. He discovered how early childhood experiences can have a significant effect on later developmental stage. He found that the blueprint of human personality is prepared by the time a child reaches the seventh year of his age. So what type of person an individual would be will largely depend on what type of child he has come to be.

Psychoanalysis as a school of psychology attempts to find out dynamic components of human behaviour. How, for example, the life instinct or sexual urge conditions human thought and action. Each individual starts his life with a fund of psychic energy called libidinal energy. It will depend on how this energy is appropriated by the individual concerned or cathected by him to various life demands or objects of love.

A child begins his life with a complete dependence on others particularly his mother. So the quality of love and care he gets during his dependency stage shall mark and stamp his future course of his life.

Psychosexual development is, however, most critical out of all other physico-social advancements. The reason being that sex alone has been subjected to enormous supression right from the dawn of human history. All sorts of guilt feelings are associated with a free and uninhibited expression of sexual experiences. Could it be suppressed and forgotten for over a justification to ignore it was accept-

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able. But its supression has revitalized it in the ways not conducive to individual health and the victims have to develope inadequate means rather perversive techniques to combat conflicting life situations.

Even personality structure holding three warring elements tightly together, does not adequately set a balance if the libido is condemned by restrictions and discipline. 'Id' knows no norms, no morality nothing except pleasure. 'Super ege' must issue parental warnings and penalize for all filth and disturbance. There should be a way of salvation. 'Id' must be tortured to control its devlish motives. The 'ego', censor must watch and obey the ever demanding master 'Id' and 'Super ege'. Ego has to work out a medium through which both 'Id' impulses and Super ege taboos get gratification.

Besides this how one can deal with inferiorities of various nature, especially inferiority complex (Adler: 1880-1937). Most frequently one perceives personal weakness for which there seem no answer. But 'no answer' does not mean that an individual remains unifluenced. He unconsiously develope a compensatory process to answer his inadequacy or weakness. It can be done in a positive way like excelling in some other direction if one fails in one direction. A boy who fails in studies may excell in games and so on.

Another question needing attention would be impact of primordial patterns of behaviour up on an organism of any time (Jung : 1887-1951). Can there be a collective unconscious where in lie the Archetypes guiding our mode of action both in society and in our private life? Findings of Jung do stress such possibilities and psychoanalysis as a school of thought has to accomodate such theorization.

Neo-psychoanslysts have turned their attention to most important and significant social realities (Erichfromm 1900) which can not be forgotton while analyzing an individual's unconscious material for clinical or social purposes.

Regarding the role of Education Freud has written :

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"The child has to learn to control its instincts. To grant it complete freedom, so that it obeys all its impulses without any restriction, is impossible ..... the function of Education, therefore, is to inhibit, forbid and suppress and it has at all times carried out this function to admiration. But we have learned from analysis that it is the very suppression of instincts that involves the danger of neurotic illness. Education has, therefore, to stem its way between the Saylla of giving the instincts free play and the Charlybdis of frustrating them ..... if we can find an optimum of education which will carry out its task ideally, then we may hope to abolish one of the factors in the etiology of neurotic illness, viz., the influence of accidental infantile traumas".

A little concentration on this observation of Freud would suggest that education in its all sincerity is rather miseducation. But if education is to serve some purpose, it must take care of its proper contribution in terms of freeing a person from unnecessary illusions and artifical disciplinary measures. From this point of view, a summary of psychoanalytic thought with its educational implications is presented as under :

A. Theory of Education

The objectives of education have to be framed around an adequately functioning human child. Child has to be the centre of all educatioanl concern. What is important is child's, 'Personal Development' (Erik Ericson 1902-) How he grows out of the stages of oral, anal, phallic, latency and adolescence? The whole series can be mismanaged if the rules of conduct, discipline or guidance are severe, punitive and commanding. From this point of view an educational endeavour should concern itself with ways to liberate an individual child from unnecessary pressures social or psychological which shadow his development. Education should, therefore :

(1) Frame a programme of understanding a child

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against his background.

(2) Bring out importance of emotional and personal development and specify programme for healthy development of children.

(3) Curriculam must evidence a positive treatment of psycho-sexual development. Denial of realities can not be proof of their non-existence.

(4) Educational material is to be built in the form that a child is provided with opportunities to express himself freely and creatively.

(5) Educational experience must also provide opportunities to talk on taboos and dictations of society. This way children shall find chances to transcend their own fears, guilt and inhibitions.

B. Educatioanl Practice

(1) A learning situation should be freed from tension and anxiety. Anxiety and tension disturb learning process as a whole. And no learning is possible when an individual child is preoccupied with anxiety.

(2) Teachers are to be trained to develop an adequate way of dealing children not through severe discipline or scolding but by understanding and accommodating.

(3) Teaching has to be threatless. In the presence of threat, no trust is going to develop. Since learning is a situation of mutual trust and understanding, any amount of mistrust shall disturb its balance.

(4) Teachers should receive sufficient training in child psychology. They should understand importance of the emotional growth of children. They should know fully the developmental ladder a child is expected to step. They must possess knowledge of prerequists and characterising properties of each stage of growth.

(5) Teachers are trained to become good listeners rather than stupied talkers as they generally are. This shall

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help them to attend children properly and help children to talk out their complexes freely and find ways for positive adjustment.

(6) And finally, the dynamism of human motivation is understood properly. This is the only guarantee that a learning system will produce genuinely balanced individuals than neurotic advisors.

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7

THE PARAMETERS OF EXAMINATION REFORM

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The history of examination is as long as the process of teaching-learning. However, in its formal sense, examination was first introduced in China in 2nd century B.C. The candidates had to qualify an examination in order to become a civil servent. This examination was to be passed again after every nine years to retain the post. In medieval Europe evaluation was usually done through "Tripos" in which a student was supposed to sit on a 3-legged stool and face a team of examiners. The examiners would assess his performance through an oral examination. Towards the beginning of 19th Century certain phenomenal changes took place. Expansion of Education was necessiated in view of equalizing educational opportunities. Education, after it was linked with ongoing occupational structure assumed significances as a factor responsible for social mobility. These changes resulted in maximizing the range of individual difference leading to 'meritocracy'. As such public examination, Internal/External examination, accreditation or certification assumed further importance.

Our traditional examination system has reduced learning to part time activity, teaching to a particular portion of the prescribed text-book and education to a relatively drab and meaningless activity. It has, therefore, become quite urgent to put the examination in its proper setting as something which contributes to the total purpose of Education.

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Recommendations of Committees and Commissions on Examination Reforms

Looking back at the pages of history of Indian Education, it is evident that 'reforms in examination' has been the focus of several commissions and committees set up from time to time to look into problems and prospectus of Indian Education system. As early as 1882, Hunter Commission observed,

> "The greatest evil from which Indian Education Sytem suffers is that teaching is subordinated to examination and not examination to teaching."

In pre-independence period the Calcutta University Commission (1917-1919) and Hartog Committee report (1929) also identified several shortcomings in the existing system of examination. After Independence, University Education Commission (1948) maintained :

> "If we are to suggest a single recommendation for reforming Education system, we would do it in the area of examinations."

The Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) analyzed the major shortcomings of the examination system in the following words :

Dead weight of examination tends to :

i) Curb the teacher initiative,
ii) Promote mechanical and lifeless methods of instruction,
iii) Stereotype the curriculum.
iv) Discourage the spirit of experimentation.

It recommended the introduction of objective-type test and a system of symbolic rather than numerical marking for evaluating and grading the work of the students.

The Education Commission (1964-1966) recommended that the following steps be taken to raise the credibility of the system of examination :

i) improving written examination so that it becomes a

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valid and reliable measure of educational achievement,

ii) devising techniques for measuring those aspects of student growth that are no covered by written examination.

iii) raising the technical competence of paper-setters,

iv) orienting Questions to different sets of objectives of different levels,

v) making internal assessment more comprehensive.

Major defects with the system

The National Policy of Education (NPE, 1986) also made certain recommendations like introducing continuous institutional evaluation, recording students' performance through letter grades and keeping a provision for imporvement of performance through subsequent appearences etc.

The Committee and Commissions which have so far deliberated upon the examination system at various educational levels have indicated that :

i) examinations have come to dominate the educational process. Passing an examination is more important than acquiring any education.

ii) examinations especially external encourage selective study and cramming. They are likely to have a set of stereotyed and general questions.

iii) making of answer scripts is hurried and superficial. Therefore, it is not a reliable measure of student performance.

The major forms of assessment techniques are written examinations, practical examinations and oral examinations etc. we look into each of these technique and try to find the limitations with each of them. This shall enable us to arrive at a clear understanding of what improvement are urgently needed.

Written examinations suffer from certain major short-

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coming like emphasis on memoriztion, subjectivity and poor content coverage.

Emphasis on Memorization

In all written examinations, memorization occupies an important place because the questions set mostly require recall of information on the part of the students. These questions revolve round the *knowledge* objective (to test the ability to recall, recognize and reproduce). The testing of higher objectives (in Blooms' taxanomy) lik *comprehension* (discriminate and classify, identify relationship and give examples), *application* (application to unfamiliar situations, making inferences, conclusions and predictions) are completely overlooked. As a matter of consequence, the instructional programme also suffers because the development of higher abilities is not taken into cognizance.

In order to overcome this serious limitation of an overemphasis on memorization with regard to written examinations, the following measures are recommended.

i) Selection of instructional objectives; (in terms of enabling and terminal objectives).

ii) Assigning proportionate weightage to each of the instructional objective for the purpose of framing questions and testing each of them.

iii) Framing questions of different forms (besides essay type) for testing the abilities as envisaged by the objectives.

Subjectivity

Another limitation with the written examination is subjectivity that operates at three levels.

Level-I The paper setter is responsible for bringing in his subjectivity by way of over emphasizing certain topics or units and completely neglecting others.

Level-II The examinee interprets the dimensions of the questions in his own way.

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Level-III The examiner, in the absence of any precise direction, assesses the performance of the examinee from his own biases and angularities.

To overcome the subjectivity, following measures are suggested :

i) *For paper setters* : A design of the question paper (blue-print) be developed. It should clearly indicate:

   a) weightage to objectives,
   b) weightage to different areas of content,
   c) weightage to different forms of questions,
   d) scheme of options, and
   e) directions for administering the Question paper.

ii) *For Examinees* : Questions should be worded specifically to delimit the scope and length of the expected answer. The statement of the questions be made in simple and unambiguous language. Precautions should be taken to see that questions do not become easy or difficult because of their language.

iii) *For Examiners* : There is a sufficient research evidence to maintain that 5 to 10% of the students fail/pass not on the basis of what they have written in the answer scripts but due to the temperament of the examiner. If the examiner is in a jolly mood, he is used to award marks very lavishly. Contrary to this, if the examiner is pensive, he slashes down the range of marks. Besides, Inter and Intra-examiner variability and general impression marking are some other factors that are responsible for making the prevalent written examinations less credible.

The biases and angularities of the examiners can be controlled to a great extent if :

a) Other forms of questions like short answer, structured Questions, Stimulus material Questions (all

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belonging to supply type) and multiple choice, Matching, Multiple Completion and Constant alternatives (all belonging to selection type) are also introduced in the question paper.

b) A scoring key (for objective part) and a marking scheme (for essay type) is prepared simaltaneously with setting of question paper and followed strictly.

Poor Content Coverage

Poor coverage of the content exerts undersirable influence on the entire teaching-learning process. It encourages selective study on the part of the students and selective teaching on the part of the teachers.

In order to overcome the shortcoming of poor content coverage, the following measures are suggested :

i) Major areas of content be selected and proportionate weightage given to them for framing questions.

ii) Questions be distributed over the entire syllabus keeping in view that weightage given to each area of content. This will make the question paper more reliable.

iii) Number of the questions be raised. Since it is not possible to raise the number of essay type questions, therefore, other forms of questions like short answer, Multiple Choice, Matching, Completion or Constant alternatives questions may be included.

iv) The following weightage be given to different forms of questions :

	Percentage
Essay Type :	48.00
Short answer :	30.00
Objective type :	22.00

v) Based on what has been stated at iii) and iv) above, a tentative distribution for a question paper of 100 marks with a time duration of 3 hours is suggested as under :

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Types of Question	*No. of Questions*	*Mark for each question*	*Total marks*	*Approx. expected time for completion*
Essay Type	3 (with internal options)	16	48	90 mts.
Short answer	5	6	30	60 mts.
Objective type (Multiple Choice or Completion or Matching etc.)	11	2	22	20 mts.
Revision				10 mts.
Total	19		100	180 mts.

vi) Options in question paper should be limited because they are the greatest curse of written examination. The over-all options should not be allowed at all. However, internal options may be provided in the essay type questions alone.

Practical Examination

The main purpose of practical examination is to test whether the candidates can perform the practical exercise and how well they carry it out in terms of accuracy and speed etc. These tests assess different abilities like observation, recording, drawing conclusions, writing a report and solving a problem.

Practical examinations could be improved by taking the following steps :

i) Proficiency in a wider variety of skills be evaluated by requiring a student to perform a number of small experiments/exercise in place of a single major one.

ii) Inter-examiner and intra-examiner variability in scoring be minimized through the use of a detailed marking scheme.

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Oral Examination

Oral examinations measure those skills which can not be measured by written examination. The most important aspect of this assessment technique is to define exactly what is going to be assessed. Once, it is done, criteria for assessment can be drawn up and the examination can be designed. These tests provide an opportunity to students to speak out their understanding, contradict opposing ideas and support their views. They give teachers an opportunity to judge intensively a student's achievement. Oral tests can be highly reliable and valid provided they are structured along the following lines :

i) General questions to create a rapport.

ii) Specific questions to judge the level of accuracy of the acquired knowledge.

iii) Cross questions for judging the depth of the knowledge of the student.

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SECTION - II

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8

AUTONOMOUS CHARACTER OF UNIVERSITY

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Universities can play a fundamental part in promoting and developing a congenial intellectual environment conducive to the pursuit of higher education and scholarship. The main objective of Universities is to impart higher education to the seekers of knowledge and this end can be achieved only when education is imparted in a free and democratic atmosphere. Higher education aims at developing self-awareness; it also deepens consciousness of the world around. It inculcates and enhances the sense of basic values of life among the individuals, which help to establish a free, self-reliant, enlightened, self-conscious and strong society. this environment of freedom provided by universities certainly develope body, mind and spirit of the students and their creative capabilities are brought to the fore. In fact, the university must be free to discharge its administrative and academic functions effectively and efficiently—the functions of preserving augumenting and transmitting knowledge.

Realising the importance of granting freedom to universities, the statutes and legislatives very vocally declare and enjoin the autonomous character of Universities; but, unfortunately, the factual position obtained in universities is converse to their statutory autonomous character. The disconcerting fact is that universities are not truly autonomous; they are indeed far from autonomous.

Let us analyse in brief the factors which make the autonomous existence of universities a myth and not a reality.

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Well, it is the government (State Government) which establishes a university, and right from its inception, government agencies decide to what extent the university will go free to function, whether any freedom is to be granted or not. The legislatives of the State Assembly lay down in the form of an Act, the organisational framework of a university and simultaneously the jurisdiction and power of the University and its various heads and bodies, such as, the Vice-Chancellor, the Central Council, the Syndicate, the Academic Council are laid down.

The Vice-Chancellor is the executive head and the leader of a University. He is supposed to be a top ranking administrator and a brilliant academician. Assuming that the Vice-Chancellor is a man of dynamism, foresight and academic attainment, he is expected to provide an effective leadership and run the university freely and independently. But he cannot discharge his functions in consonance with his plans and programmes; he is handicapped in translating his dreams and concepts into action. The reason is that his appointment is often of political nature. The Governor and the Chief-Minister after mutual consultation make his appointment—on the basis of his connections with the political leadders in power. This method of appointment, however, is followed in normal times. So in many cases, worthy people are not selected for this high post. Even if deserving and renowned persons are appointed, they do not enjoy freedom to discharge their duties independently. Even for the execution of the policies of purely academic nature, they will have to seek the concurrence of the people in power. The Vice-Chancellor if he wants to get another term of three years will not hazard displeasure of his political bosses by adopting a posture of confrontation with them. The state which has established a University, wants to exercise its direct or indirect control over the functioning of the University.That is why the Governor and the Chief Minister act as Chancellor and Pro-Chancellor respectively. Not only that, but the nominees of the government in several governing bodies and committees of the University represent the

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government and influence the decision whatsoever. The Vice-Chanceller can not be indifferent to their views and recommendations; consequently, he usually succumbs to pressures and make compromises.

The basic problem faced by the University authorities is that the University has to depend upon the government for recurring funds. The government not only provides funds, but it also exercises a direct control over the system of financing, and it is the finance department that acts as a strict accounts officer to the university. The finance department makes repeated quiries regarding even minor items of expenditure, which compounds problems rather than solving them. Funds are approved belatedly. Approved funds are not released in time. Creation of posts, academic or non-academic, needs approval of the Financial Commissioner which is time consuming. If the Financial Commissioner happens to be a non-academic man, which he usually is, he takes time to understand and appreciate the academic issues of the University. Similarly, the development schemes are at the mercy of the Finance Department; as a consequence, the efficient functioning of the University is impeded. Hence, the working of the present financing system affects the performance of the administration and hampers academic growth of the University. It is clear that unless and until adequate funds and grants are put at the disposal of the University, it cannot aspire to become a centre of excellence.

Apparently the University is free to appoint its own teaching staff. In fact the successful performance of a University and effective transmission of knowledge depends on the right selection of teachers. But, unfortunately the governments interference creates hurleds in such selections as well. Here again the nominees of the government sometimes ignore the requirements of the University and men of scholarship are dropped. This state of affairs prevails almost in every University, consequently, over the last two or three decades, it is not the teahers meant for the "noble profession" but the job seekers have been recruited and

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men of Scholarship are dropped. This state of affairs prevails almost in every University. Such teachers, instead of pursuing their academic pursuits, are often after administrative assignments vitiating academic standards.

Often the intellectual atmosphere of a University is disturbed by the students when they resort to agitational methods to gain their ends. Student unrest is a world—wide phenomenon. In India, too, this problem has assumed serious proportions. In view of population explosion, erosion of human-values, disintegration in family life, social inequality, growing unemployment and uncertainty of future student community envisages a grim dark future and is beset with discontentment and frustration, and it is out of frustration that it resorts to agitations. Again the prevalent system of education-a legacy of the erstwhile British rulers-has become assolutely redundent and meaningless for the new generations. The aim of the British rulers was to produce clerks to run the government. Since 1947, several Education Commissions were established to review and revolutionize the age-old educational system, but practically no concrete step has been taken in this direction. Our lacklustre classrooms continue to be drab and and monotonous and the practice of dictation of notes to dumb students is unchanged. There is no rapport between the students and teacher. The examination system is nothing but a haphazard test to memorising and the evaluation of aptitude, intelligence and knowledge continues to be a dream. No doubt that the majority of students are eager to pursue studies and research, but they too, under the impact of the old educational system, realise the futility of their assiduity and join agitations and lawlessness. Therefore, students use all means, fair or unfair, to disturb the University administration. Electronic media and newspapers have made their job easier.

In order to safeguard their interests, the teachers who are supposed to be intellectuals, scientists, historians, writers and educationists, want to form associations, within the Campus or outside the Campuses. This is a genuine

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right which should be granted to them. But they are denied this freedom of associations. This hinders their freedom of expression, and intellectual climate as a whole is adversely affected. On the other hand, if a teachers association exists in a University, but is weak and is not allowed to function freely and independently, it is prone to be influenced and directed by the government, defeating its very purpose.

The University can achieve its objectives only when its status of centre of excellence is maintained and its autonomous character, in the real sense of the word, is ensured; and it is free to exercise independent judgement in the execution of its educational policies and responsibilities. Gajendragadkar Commission has well inscribed.

> "The concept of University autonomy, however, means that it would be appropriate on the part of democratic legislatives not to interfere with the administration of a University life, both academic and non-academic".

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9

UNIVERSITY AUTONOMY & ACCOUNTABILITY : A CRITICAL ANALYSIS

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Introduction

The Indian system of education in general and higher education in particular has been subjected to sharp ciriticism for its failure to provide education relevant to the needs and aspirations of the teeming millions of India[1]. Observers of the Indian educational scene are of the opinion that all is not well with Indian higher education. There is a consensus that Indian Universities today are facing multi-dimensional difficulties[2]. The University autonomy, one of the vital components related with over-all functioning of the University has been no doubt debated since quite long time and the arguments as well as counter-arguments for and against such autonomy have been raised from time to time, but in the recent years issues pertaining to the University education, purpose of the University education, in-put in the educational sector, demand of the Society in the light of present challanges, autonomy and accountability have gained attention of the Educationists, Bureaucrats and the people working in various other sectors of the society.

These and other issues have gained importance especially due to 'knowledge explosion' on one hand and 'erosion of the University autonomy' on the other. It has been rightly observed that exponential growth makes every decade a watershed in human history. Humanity's life and destiny and their meaning and purpose are perhaps more than what this knowledge comprises; but without this knowledge

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surge in history and mankind surely would have been so much less.

In the last three centuries or so, science became the mainspring of the growth of knowledge and science as technology has become the moving force. The accelerating pace of Science and Technology based knowledge has been extra-ordinarily high[3]. The body of this knowledge is doubling in very short span of time (as per one estimate every 10 years). In order to get the grip of this changing knowledge, it is essential that the new discoveries, inventions and developments also go with the same speed.

Singh[4], further observed that the revolutionary developments in science and technology had led in the recent decades to the emergence of "knowledge-based" societies in which the central capital is `knowledge: Science and Technology-based knolwedge determines the economic production structures and has increasingly acquired a life of its own. The organizational structures of economic and social life, almost in every society are dominated by such knowledge embodied in computerization and cybernation.

Science and Technology in the modern age, are now established as forces of great power in shaping the futures. The developed countries are making capital gains from the application of Science and Technology in every sphere of life, but the developing countries face the challange of creating for themselves pathways of learning which may lead to the mainstream of the knowledge revolution. The quest of knowledge based technology in the present era of 'knowledge explosion' gives rise to a number of issues and sub-issues related with present state of educational system. Educational System in a Country is both a reflection of its social system and indicator of the shape of its furture[5]. Those engaged in the field of education thus have a great responsibility. However, it may not be possible to say that reform of education alone can solve all the problems. Nevertheless the fact remains that 'education' holds the key to a nation's future.

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III. Purpose of the Higher Education

The purpose of the Colleges and Universities from a layman's angle is to impart higher education to the people and to launch research activity aimed at the over-all development of the Society. Education is a dynamic process, by which the knowledge, Character and behaviour of a person is moulded in a positive direction.[6] Education is preparation for social life and to help an individual to acquire such knowledge and skills as would enable him/her to meet social demands of day to day life. Our ancient scriptures define education as 'that' which liberates an individual from ignorance and oppression and right from the dawn of the history, man has perpetuated his knowledge through education. Education has grown with the progress of the society and from its inception education has undertaken to impart training to the individuals and to inculcate in them a sense of citizenship and responsibility[7].

The institutions of Higher Learning i.e., Universities have very vital role in shaping the attitudes, thinking and behaviour of the individuals and over-all development of the society of which they are an integral part. Dutta[14], pointed out that the Universities have an important responsibility in the preservation, transmission and extension of knolwedge and stimulation of intellectual life and cultural development of the Society. They must carry knowledge to the community and accept this service as one of their important duties. The U.G.C. guidelines issued in 1988 stated that it is imperative that the Universities and Colleges become sensitive to the learning needs of the community and respond to such needs through relevant learning programmes.

The University is just like a gown for the town and is supposed to address almost each and every problem of its society. The University is a place where teachers and students meet to learn useful knowledge which has been experimented, tested and analysed through current experiences[15]. In other words the role of the University in dealing with various societal matters revolves mainly around the

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following changing aspects of life.

i) The development and growth of the individual personality;

ii) The giving up of certain attitudes and values and acquiring of new attitudes and values by the individual and society;[16]

iii) The impact of science and technology on society in general and the sub-sectors of Agriculture, Manfactures, Communications, Transport, Health and Education in particular;

iv) The formation of the Education personnel, Scientists, Technologists, Medical personnel and Administrators that society needs for its functioning.[18]

III Autonomy and Higher Education

The Universities as discussed above have an important task of providing leadership almost in every sphere of life and this type of leadership can be provided only when Universities are allowed to work in a free atmosphere. In order to realize the objective, it is only in a free academic atmosphere that the meaningful interaction between University scholars, teachers, students, administrators and community at large can take place. The free interaction between University Community and Community at large is essential and vital for meaningful growth of the knowledge.

The Universities by virtue of their intellectual leadership of Community, are the key to social and economic progress. It is necessary that the Universities are allowed to grow and develop their personalities unkindered by extraneous pressures. The fullest possible measure of autonomy is indispensable for their proper functioning and growth in the interest of country's advancement and it is essential to draw attention to and oppose effectively any tendency contrary to this objective[19].

Bhandarkar[20], observed that a University needs autonomy, if it is to discharge its functions and obligations to society and play an effective part in the development and

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progress of the Country. *The Education Commission* (1964-66)[21] in respect of the University autonomy observed :

> "It is important to recognize that the case for autonomy for University rests on the fundamental consideration that without it, Universities cannot discharge its main functions of teaching, research and service to the Community, and that only an autonomous Institution, free from regimentation of ideas and pressure of party or power politics, can pursue truth fearlessly and build up, in its teachers and students habits of independent thinking and a spirit of enquiry unfettered by the limitations and prejudices of the near and immediate which is essential for the development of a free society ....".

The primary objective of the institutional autonomy as perceived from time to time is to enable deserving Institutions to achieve their best possible performance jointly through teachers, students and management, in terms of scholarship and academic excellence. The essence of academic freedom is that it would enable teachers to function in a purely intellectual climate and enable them to promote scholarship, excellence and development without any limitation. The U.G.C. Committee's Report on the *'Governance of Universities'*[22] observed that the claim for autonomy is made and supported on the ground that such a autonomy is a condition precedent if the Universities are to discharge their duties and obligations effectively and efficiently as regards importing and advancement of knowledge, and also making their Unique contribution to the life and development of Nation.

Koul[23], has maintained that University teachers are generally committed to autonomy and would like to preserve and countenance Institutional autonomy, even if that means some restraint on their own autonomy. He has further observed that students will gladly suffer autonomy of teachers and administrators for the greater glory of the University. The University autonomy is a necessary condition for maintaining and fostering academic freedom. The

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Committees and Commissions on Higher Education appointed from time to time have advocated for the University autonomy to ensure effective and efficient functioning of the academic Institutions. The Committee On *Model Act for Universities*[24], summarized the importance of University autonomy in the following terminology :

> "Autonomy for a University is not a matter of fundamental right but is a condition for its efficient functioning and enabling it to achieve the true ideals and aims of a University. A University needs autonomy, if it is to discharge properly its functions and obligations to society and play an effective part in the development and progress of the country ...."

The Committee[25], further observed that Universities which are created by virtue of an Act, have only such rights which are conferred by such a legislation. However, if the University is to foster and stand for 'humanism' for tolerance, for progress, for adventure of ideas and for the search of truth, it must be an 'autonomous institution'. An autonomous institution my not always achieve these ideals, but it is certain that a University which is not autonomous is hardly likely ever to achieve these great objectives. Autonomy does not mean isolation or aloofness from national purposes or claim for some superior status or position; but it does imply that the University ought not to be harnessed for securing regimentation of ideas or draw into the ambit of party or power politics. *Bhandarkar*[26], pointed out, that apart from the basic principle that free and representative Institutions alone can contribute to the making of a democracy. The University, if it is to serve the society, to inclucate values, to pursue truth objectively must grow in freedom unfettered by current dogmas and prejudices. Control by the political party in power defeats the very purpose of the University existence. The party in power looks after the temporary inerest of the Country, whereas the Universities, because they are moved by academic rather than political goals, pursue the permanent national interests.

The expression University autonomy is a wider term

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with relative connotation and the components of such autonomy vary from country to country depending upon the existing educational system. *Robbins Committee On Higher Education*[27], list the following five components of the University autonomy :

1. Freedom of appointment;
2. Freedom to determine curricula and standards;
3. Freedom of admissions;
4. Freedom to determine the balance between teaching and reserch; and
5. Freedom to determine the shape of development.

Rao[28], has pointed out that there are three aspects of autonomy viz Administrative, Financial and Academic. There is a feeling that the University should be allowed to manage its own affairs without curbs or restrictions by the Government. The autonomy in respect of the financial affairs is visualised by the Universities in the freedom to operate the budget without any control. The academic aspect of autonomy means freedom in designing of the curriculum, admission procedures, conduct of examinations, prescription of text books and methods of instruction etc. The University autonomy has other two main aspects - Internal and external. Autonomy is not merely an issue between the University and the State, but it also involves the functional relationship between the University and its various units. The functioning of the Vice-Chancellor vis-a-vis Heads of various University academic and administrative Units and that of a senior Professor in a Department vis-a-vis his/her colleagues cannot be ignored while advocating for any type of autonomy.

IV. Autonomy and Accountability

The concept of absolute freedom or autonomy in any organization is neither possible nor can such a concept be conceived with out negative consequences. In other words autonomy and accountability are inter-related and with more and more autonomy, the degree of accountability increases. The concepts of 'autonomy' and 'accountability' no doubt are very old, but today 'accountability waves' are

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making news. *Kulkarni*[29], has rightly observed that for better performance of our organizations, managers/executives need to be given autonomy, but they must also be made accountable. It is a well settled principle that effective management requires people being given authority which commensurate with their tasks. Autonomy means capability and freedom to take decisions in clearly demarcated territories for realizing the objectives for which such an organization is established.

'Autonomy' and 'Accountability' are, in fact, the two faces of the same coin of democratic mechanism of self-propulsion, self-actualization and self-correction. There can be no autonomy without accountability, similarly there can be no accountability without autonomy. In an autonomous institution, the components of autonomies are intertwined with corresponding system of accountabilities. The Faculty member is autonomous with respect to the Department and is accountable to it, Department is autonomous with respect to the Faculty and is accountable to it, the Faculty is autonomous vis-a-vis University and is accountable to it. The University is autonomous with respect to the community and the State and is therefore accountable to the Community as well as the Government[30].

Autonomy means that each exective is free to take decisions in his own affairs without any type of interference from outside agencies. Autonomy connotes a boundary, within which each executive will be king and which he will not over-step and which boundary will be respected by his subordinates, peers and superiors. Autonomy for an executive means not only avoiding tempetation on the part the Superior to over-step his boundaries, but it also entails enormous responsibility for the superior. He has to ensure that the very purpose of autonomy is served and it also percolates in the downward direction in the same way in which he himself avails the autonomy. The top executive of an Institution has also to ensure that the subordinate is 'capable of being autonomous' - possessing the necessary job knowledge, skill, aptitude, resources and motivation to

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take good decisions within his territory. Autonomy without such capability would be disastrous. The top executive has also to ensure that autonomy does not amount to independence and that the subordinate performs within over-all organizational goals and policies. The executive is expected to take such decisions which lead to attainment of the goals set for him and he is obviously accountable for his decisions and for his performance[31].

The autonomy no doubt is essential pre-requisite for the University to enable it to pursue its goals and for the Faculty member and students to carry on their role of teaching, learning and research, but absolute autonomy is an impossible ideal in any society. The absolute autonomy for any Institution cannot be considered without accountability. Even the strongest advocates of autonomy cannot seriously question the Legitimacy of requiring some degree of public accountability from educational institutions receiving publie support[32]. The relationship between Universities and the State is a delicate one. The Universitiy should have institutional autonomy for pursuit of its goals of seeking truth and knowledge and for conducing free equiry. In all academic and intellectual matters, such as selection of individual students, selection and promotion of faculty members, and planning of courses and curricula, the Universities must have full freedom. The State on its part has to ensure that the Universities continue to meet national needs and render adequate service to the Community which finances them[33].

Gajendragadkar Commission[34], in its report of 1971 observed, that the concept of University autonomy is not a legal concept, not even a constitutional concept. It is an ethical concept and an academic concept and within this ambit the Legislatures have a right to discuss and determine the question of policy relating to education including higher education. However, it would be appropriate on the part of democratic Legislatures not to interfere with the administration of University life both academic and non-academic.

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The University functioning in the recent decades has been also questioned on account of the very purpose for which it has been established. A very vital issue raised in this respect is whether the University can be made accountable to the students, if a proper and effective service is not provided to its consumers viz students. In order to protect the interests of the consumers, *the Consumer Protection Act* was passed in the year 1986[35]. The Universities very recently have been also brought within the scope of the Act, despite the fact that it is argued on behalf of the Universities, that the Universities are statutory bodies imparting education as a part of their soverign functions of the state and therefore are not rendening any service within the meaning of S.2(1)0 of the Act[36]. However, inrespect of the accountability of the Universities under the Consumer Protection Act, it is argued that the Universities are the Centres of education and they provide one of the most essential and important services to the Citizens of the Country namely education. They prescribe several courses of study, conduct examinations and award degrees. They collect admission fee and examination fee and a student who seeks admission and sits for examination and pays necessary fees therefore certainly hires the services of the University for consideration and is consumer within the meaning of the aforementioned provision of the Consumer Protection Act.

The University on the share plea of autonomy can not escape from the clutches of responsibility i.e., accountability. The Committee on 'Revision of Pay-scales of Teachers' observed that it is universally acknowledged view that in order to attain excellence in the spheres of teaching, research, creativity and extension work, an environment of autonomy and freedom is essential for the Universities. *The Mehrotra Committee*[37] pointed out that concept of autonomy of the University in India is derived from the British System of higher education, as there is ample evidence indicating that the spirit of autonomy of Instituions of higher learning was well established in our older Universities also. The

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autonomy is essential for a University to realize its objectives, but there can no autonomy without accountability.

V. Structure of the Universities :-

The Universities in India are established or incorporated by the Acts of Legistlature. The Central Universities come into being by virtue of the Central Legislation i.e., an Act of the Parliament, where as State Universities come into existence by virtue of the State Legislations. The U.G.C. Act 1956 provides that 'University' means a University established or incorporated by or under a Central Act, a Provincial Act or State Act. Other Institutions of higher education may be deemed to be 'Universities' but may not be designated as 'Universities'.

The structure of a University by and large depends upon the provisions of the Act, under which the University has been established. The Act generally deals with the jurisdiction of the University, Powers and functions of the University, University authorities and their functions, University bodies, their composition, functions and powers, audit, accounts and various other issues.

The 'Statutes' deal with wide ranging matters relating to the University functioning. Discipline of the students ,classification of the emoluments and manner of appointment of teachers, conferment of honorary degrees and other distinctions, establishment and abolition of faculties, departments, Colleges and Instituions etc fall within the scope of the 'Statutes'. The 'Statutes' may also provide for the composition, powers of the Court, Executive Council, Academic Council, Selection Committee, Finance Committee and such other bodies as may be deemed necessary to be constituded from time to time.[38] The first statutes of a University are framed under the authority of the legislature, but the University Council or the Executive Council may from time to time, make new statutes or any amendment or repeal existing statutes, however such statute or amendment shall be effective only on the approval of the Visitor/ Chancellor.

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The Ordinances deal with establishment and constitution of centres of study, Boards of Study, Inter-disciplinary Committees, Special Centres, Admission Committees, Examination Committees, Departments, Inter-disciplinary Committees and various other related issues. The Exective Council can make, amend or repeal the Ordinances. Further, the authorities of the University or other Statutory bodies may make rules regarding the procedure to be followed in the meetings, number of the persons forming the quorum and other allied issues which are known as REGULATIONS[39]. The apex body in a University is known as Court or Executive Council. The composition of the Court/Executive Council to a great extent reflects the autonomy a University enjoys.

The Aligarh Muslim University Act, 1920[40] provides that the Court shall be the apex body in the University with representation to both academicians, non-academicians as well as politicians. *Syed Hashim Ali*[41] observed that Court is a large body of more than 180 members representing different organizations and interests. The old boys are represented by 25 members. The parliament is represented by 10 members and learned professions like Industry, Commerce, Trade Unions, Banking and Agriculture are represented by 20 members. Students of the University are also given representation in the Court. Thirty five members of the Court shall form a quorum. The meeting of the Court is to be held annually and a report of the expenditure and receipts is presented in the meeting. *Syed Hashim Ali*[43] in respect of the Court meeting observed :-

> "It is an annual event in which an effort is made to destabilise the University. Such a situation makes the administration of the University difficult, specially when the Government also shows weakness because of political reasons ..."

The other important bodies in A.M.U. are the Executive Council, The Academic Council, Students Council and the Faculties etc. The President of India, is The Visitor of the University and besides other powers has the right to cause

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in inspection to be made by such person or persons as he may direct, of the University, its buildings, laboratories, and equipments, and of any Institution maintained by the University, and also of the examinations, teaching and other work conducted or done by the University, and cause an inquiry to be made in like manner in respect of any matter connected with the University[42]. The University no doubt shall have the right to be present and of being heard in any inspection or inquiry[43]. The Visitor shall have also the right to issue directions under certain circumstances, which the Executive Council shall have to comply with[44].

The Banaras Hindu University Act, 1915[46] also provides that the Court shall be the highest body in the overall functioning of the University. Number of the members of the B.H.U. Court is limited as compared to the A.M.U. Court. The parliament's representation in the Court is limited to three members only, but the Visitor has a right to nominate thirty members from amongest persons who are men of standing in public life or have special knowledge or practical experience in education or have rendered eminent services in the cause of education. Seventeen members of the Court shall form the quorum[47]. The B.H.U. Act in a clear cut terminology identifies the following main functions of the Court :-

a) To advice the Visitor in respect of any matter which may be referred to it for advice;

b) To advice any authority of the University in respect of any matter which may be referred to the Court by such authority; and

c) To perform such other duties and exercise such other powers as may be assigned to it by the Visitor or under this Act.

The other important bodies of the University are the Executive Council, The Academic Council, The Finance Committee, The Faculties and other Committees. The President of India, shall be the Visitor of the University and shall have the right to cause an inspection or an enquiry in the

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same manner as prescribed under the Act[49]. The manner and procedure for this purpose is same as out-lined by the A.M.U. Act. *Hari Narain*[50] and Iqbal Narain[51] who have been the Vice-Chancellors of B.H.U. have given their experience as Vice-Chalncellors in their papers entitled "A Dream Came True But" and "Poignancy And Amusement", but they have not discussed the functioning of the Court, except that *Hari Narain*, observed that he was in a position to convene the 52nd meeting of the Court after a spell of 8 years. The other Central Universities like J.N.U. and Jamia Millia Islamia have been established by the Central Legislations and almost all such Legislations are with common features except with same minor variations. S.17 of the Jamia Millia Islamia Act, 1988[52], deals with authorities of University and statutes provide composition and quorum of the various Bodies[53]. The President of India shall be the Visitor of the University. The President under the Act enjoys the same right and powers as he enjoys under the B.H.U. Act and A.M.U. Act[54].

The State Universities are created by the State Legislatures. The Act enacted by the State Legislatures are almost identical with that of Central Acts. The Universities in the State of Uttar Pradesh are governed by the Uttar Pradesh Universities Act, 1974[55]. The Act provides that the Executive Council; the Court, the Academic Council; The Finance Committee, The Board of Faculties and other Bodies (specified in the Act) Shall be authorities of the University[56]. The Executive Council by virtue of the Act is the principal executive body[57], where as Court is the advisory body[58]. The Vice-Chancellor shall be the Chairman of the Executive Council, where as Governor, who is the Chancellor of the University shall be the President of the Court. The special feature of the Court of the U.P. Universities is that besides fifteen representatives from amongst the registered graduates, one student representative from each of the Faculties, who having secured the highest marks in that Faculty at the preceding degree examination of any University in pursuing a course of study for a post-

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graduate degree of a Law or a medical or engineering degree in the University (including an affiliated or associated College) can be also members of the Court[59].

The State Government under the Act has the power of Visitation. The Government has the right to cause an inspection to be made by such person or persons as it may direct, of the University or any constituent College or any Institute maintained by the University, including its buildings, libraries, laboratories, workshops and equipments and also of the examination, teaching and other work done by the University or its Units etc[60]. The Government has also the right to cause an inquiry inrespect of any matter connected with the administration and finances of the University[61]. The Act has given more powers to the U.P. State in respect of the State Universities and thereby their autonomy remains only for sake of arguements and for all other practical purposes, the Universities are State controlled Institutions. The Chief Minister, nodoubt has no direct control of the Universities, but in a number of cases The Chief Minister or other Ministers in the cabinent or powerful politicians have run or attempted to run their writ in the over-all administration of the Universities. In some cases they have also attempted to cow-down the Vice-Chancellors from time to time. *Misra*[62] and *Kapoor*[63] have provided ample evidence in this regard.

In Haryana, Kurukshetra University Act of 1956 as amended from time to time has been repreated and replaced by the Kurukshetra University Act, 1986[64]. The Act like other Acts provides that the Court; the Exective Council; The Academic Council; the Finance Committee; the Faculties and the Academic Planning Board etc shall be authorities of the University[65]. The Act also provides that the Governor of Haryana by virtue of his office shall be the Chancellor of the University and shall be the head of the University[66]. The Act[67] also empowers the Chancellor to cause an inspection or an inquiry. The procedure for this purpose is almost the same as discussed above.

The State Legislature of the Jammu and Kashmir

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enacted Kashmir And Jammu Universities Act, 1969[68], to establish The University of Kashmir at Srinagar and University of Jammu at Jammu. The Act provides that besides The Chancellor, The Vice-Chancellor and other Officers, The Pro-Chancellor and The Financial Advisor shall be also officers of the University[69]. The Governor is Chancellor of both the Universities[70]. and the Chief Minister of the State is ex-officio Pro-Chancellor of both the Universities. The important University authorities mainly include The Uniiversity Council, The Syndicate, The Academic Council, The Faculties, the Board of Studies etc.

In the University of Kashmir and the University of Jammu, The University Council is the supreme authority of the University[71]. Chancellor is the chairman of the Council and other members are - The Pro-Chancellor, The Education Minister, The Vice-Chancellor of the University concerned, The Vice-Chancellor of the sister University, The Pro-Chancellor of the University (if any), The Financial Advisor, The Educational Advisor, Two Deans of the Faculties to be nominated by the Chancellor by rotation, One Principal of an affiliated or Constituent College to be nominated by the Chancellor by rotation, Two members of the teaching staff to be nominated by the Chancellor in consultation with the pro-chancellor and Two nominees of the Chancellor[72]. The University Council of Kashmir University and Jammu University, unlike other University Councils is mostly represented by the Executive.

The total strength of the Council members is fourteen (at present, there is no pro-Vice-Chancellor) and out of the fourteen members seven are non-academicians (Chancellor, Pre-Chancellor, Education Minister, Financial Advisor, Education Commissioner, Two nominees of the Chancellor) and others are two Vice-Chancellors, two Deans, one principal and two members of the teaching staff (to be nominated by the Chancellor in consultation with Pro-Chancellor without any criterion). The teachers are not represented by the elected members nor is there only representation to the non-teaching community and the Students. The Coun-

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cil is under the total control of the State Executive as five members inclusive of the Chairman shall form the quorum[73]. Nevertheless if every thing goes smoothly and the Chancellor or the Pro-Chancellor are keen to improve the quality of higher education, the Vice-Chancellor in such circumstances may not face any difficulty in implementing the decisions[74]. On the other hand, the very presence of both the Governor and the Chief Minister on the Council encourages and ensures political interference in the affairs of the University[75].

The second important body of the University is the Syndicate, which is the chief exective authority except in respect of the matters falling within the purview of the University Council[76]. The Syndicate no doubt is chaired by the Vice-Chancellor, but other members from the Executive have a good say in the Syndicate and in most of the cases their opinion prevails. The Academic Council is also an important body in the University set-up, which of course is represented by the academicians. All the important decisions on the academic issues are taken by the Academic Council.

The unique feature of the Kashmir and Jammu Universities Act is that the Pro-Chancellor (The Chief Minister) is empowered to cause an ispection to be made by such person or persons as he may direct, of the University, its buildings, Laboratories, equipments etc. and also the examinations, teaching and other work conducted or done by University. He is also empowered to cause an inquiry to be made in like manner in respect of any matter connected with University[77]. This power in case of the Central Universities is exercised by the Visitor (The President) and in case of the State Universities by the Chancellor (The Governor), but in the State of Jammu and Kashmir, this right is given to Pro-Chancellor (The Chief Minister). The Visitor and the Chancellor are expected to be above political considerations, but it is very difficult for a Chief Minister to be above such considerations and therefore, aforementioned provisions of the Kashmir and Jammu Universities Act are bound to

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erode the University autonomy, as the Chief Minister in his capacity as Pro-Chancellor can set in motion an enquiry on the affairs of the University without consulting the Chancellor or the Vice-Chancellor. *S. Manzoor Alam*[78] has rightly observed that these provisions of the University Act of 1969 make a mockery of the University autonomy.

The Structure of a University as envisaged under the provision of the Act, Statutes and Regulations to a great extent provide a set-system within which a University can perform its functions and deal with its academic, administrative and financial issues within the available resources. The academic activity in the Universities, where the provisions of the Act or Statutes give more representaion to the non-academic personalities, suffers under the garb of administrative technicalites or financial considerations. On the other hand in the Universities where the Act or Statues give more weightage to the academicians in the decision making the academic component is bound to get top priority, provided the academicians who are members of the decision making bodies are really academicians and academic interests are paramount to them.

The personality and commitment of a Vice-Chancellor is very important for the over-all development of the University. If the Vice-Chancellor is appointed on political considerations, he is bound to have political commitments and other chain of events related with appointments, administrative matters, academic matters and financial matters follows the same pattern. Even the Decision making bodies also follow the same suit. On the other hand a Vice-Chancellor with academic commitment attempts to improve the academic standards of the University.

VI. Conclusions and Suggestions

In the Annual Report of the University Grants Commission (1991-92), it has been pointed out that Higher Eduation System in India is under considerable stress due to the challanges offered by increase in numbers on the one hand and need to maintain standards on the other. *Swamy*[79],

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observed that as we draw closer to the end of 20th Century, we find that Higher Education is gaining greater importance and is drawing more attention and attracting higher investment than before from the governments all over the World.

Higher Education in the context of present knowledge explosion, technological revolution and financial implications has entered into a critical phase, where so many 'ifs' and 'buts' are raised and the very purpose of Higher Education is questioned. A strong feeling is emerging that Higher Education System, which is expected to address to the urgent and immediate problems of the Society, has failed in its mission, consequently eye-brows are raised from every corner. Questions have been raised and are being raised, Commissions and committees have been appointed and are being appointed to examine the role of Higher education in the light of modern developments.

Science and Technology have changed our thinking and way of life. In the present era one can not live in isolation, but has to keep pace with the changing knowledge and changing world. The Institutions of learning have a vital role in this regard, as such Institutions are established to generate knowledge, disseminate knolwedge and to apply knowledge. The Institutions are key to progress. It is believed by the academicians and other like minded people that such progress can be achieved provided academic Institutions are given freedom to manage their own affairs within the available resources. It is also advocated that the University teachers, scholars and students need freedom to interact with each other and Community at large. The Universities in a free atmosphere are supposed to identify issues and problems and are expected to launch research activity aimed at such problems. The Universities are also expected to project problems, shape developmental plans and suggest measures for future plans.

The freedom of the Universities is essential to enable them to realize their objectives and to meet demands of the society. The University autonomy is a concept which can not be considered in isolation, but is to be taken in the light

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of surrounding circumstances. Autonomy means freedom to chocie one's course of action in the given circumstances. In the University structure, autonomy in its proper perspective means that the Decision making bodies, The Vice-Chancellor, The Deans, The Heads and other officers of the University are free to take decisions they feel necessary, appropriate and relevant for the promotion of academics and over-all development of the Institution. The University autonomy includes freedom to make admissions and appointments, feedom to devise curriculum and to channalize the over-all development of the University.

The top executive in an autonomous Institution who advocates and enjoys autonomy is expected to provide the same sort of freedom to the Heads of various Units of the Institution and so on. Autonomy in its right spirit involves decentralization for the efficient and effective functioning of the Institution.

The autonomy is a relative term and cannot be conceived without accountability, particularly in the present era of knowledge explosion and technological revolution on one hand and chaos and corruption on the other. The Universities in India are financed by the Government and since public money is involved, the accountability aspect cannot be ignored or over-looked. The concept of accountability is to be looked from a positive perspective. It has been often found that power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely. There have been allegations and cross-allegations against the University administration as well as teaching community. It has been off and on brought to the public knowledge that University authorities abuse and misues their power and position. The appointments of the teaching and non-teaching staff in most of the Universities become target of public criticism and some of the cases are dragged to the Court of Law.

The appointment of the Vice-Chancellor is very cruical and vital so far as over-all functioning of the University is concerned. The autonomy and accountability by and large is reflected in the appointment of the Vice-Chancellor,

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Faculty members, Officers of the University and composition of the Decision Making Bodies. In the Universities where the Vice-Chancellor is appointed on political considerations than merit, all other appointments in the University are bound to be influenced by political considerations and merit if any gets least priority.

The apex bodies like Court, Senate, Executive Council, Syndicate and other bodies in most of the Universities are represented by politicians and over-represented by non-academicians. The policy decisions taken in these apex bodies are influenced by the Government nominees. The Government nominees are supported by teacher politicians and Government sponsored or monitored proposals get easy through in these apex bodies, even if at times such decisions are detrimental to the academic interests of the University.

The decisions on academic and administrative matters are influenced by political over-tunes. The Institutions of learning become a vehicle to serve interests of the vested class and political interference at every stage become inevitable. the State Governments exercise or attempt to exercise maximum possible control so far as the over-all functioning of the University is concerned. The recent amendments made in various University Acts is an eye opener in this respect.

The political intereference by the Government in the over-all functioning of the University is not a new phenomenon, but has now increased in its magnitude and touches almost every vital nerve of the University. *Bhanadarkar*[79], observed that arbitrary encroachment on the University autonomy by the authorities does not arise in vaccume. It is an inevitable outcome in a vicious circle. Like any other corporate body, the University has and will always have its share of intriguers and power seekers. Their influence, however becomes far more pernicious when it is generated and supported by an external agency. *Misra*[80], in this respect pointed out that good number of teachers join hands with local politicians to serve their vested interests and

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some of the politicians take it as a golden opporutnity to use the University potential for their ulterior motives.

However, in the Universities where appointment of a Vice-Chancellor is made purely on merit without any political consideration, the other appointments on academic and non-academic positions are also made on merit. The other decisions on the academic and administrative matters are also taken purely on merit and there remains least scope for political interference. The politicians remain at a distance and normally do not dare to take University as their plateform, unless invited by the members of the University Community.

In order to ensure that Universities perform their functions efficiently and effectively, the appointment of the Vice-Chancellor should be made purely on academic achievements and administrative experience. The appointment of a Vice-Chancellor under any circumstances should not be influenced by political considerations. There should be certainty in the tenure of the Vice-Chancellor and he/she should not be suspended or forced to resign unless there are established cases of corruption or moral turpitude.

There should be no political intereference in the affairs of the University and a Vice-Chancellor should be given full co-operation to discharge his functions in accordance with the provisions of the Act under which the University has been established. The Vice-Chancellor should take decisions purely on merit and should implement the provisions of the Act sincerely and faithfully.

The Vice-Chancellor should never cow-down by internal or external pressures. He should never compromise as Vice-Chancellor and inorder to uphold academic standards of the University, he must be ready to face any situation with strong heart and commitment.

The Vice-Chancellor should give maximum time to the policy matters aimed at growth and development of the University. The routine and other matters should be left to

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the Heads of various units of the University. De-centralization of the administrative and academic Units shall help the top executive to concentrate on policy matters.

The Heads of various Units in the University should be given full autonomy for running their Units and every possible facility should be provided to them. They should be made accountable for their achievements in teaching, research and active involvement of the students in the extension work. The in-put and out-put of the Unit should be evaluated at this stage.

The Faculty members should be encouraged to take research projects which are suitable and fruitful to the society at large. The teachers should develop innovative and attractive methods of teaching and should always be loaded with latest information on the subject for its transmission to the students. The teachers should voluntarily submit themselves for assessment and evaluation by the students.

The Universities should not become a burden on the society, but should generate their own resources. The Heads of various teaching units on the Campus should be motivated to originate and develop their resources, they should be involved in the financial management of the University.

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10

MANAGEMENT & ORGANISATION OF UNIVERSITIES — A CHALLENGE

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The human resources have played a vital and crucial role in the development of nations. A country rich in natural resources but with no mechanism to transform and properly chanalise its human resources, can never give momentum to its progress and nation-building activities. For reshaping fruitfully the social order, exploring, generating, conserving and transmitting knowledge and cultural heretige, the Universities play vital and crucial role. In the words of T.R.Mc. Connell, "Universities have among all institutions in the nation, the greatest responsibility to be a shaper of the society. As such, it has an obligation to identify social wrongs and take lead in rectifying them". Universities have to provide for leadership, to meet the ever-increasing demand for every type of higher education; literacy, scientific, technical or professional. They should work for getting nation to be free from want and disease. The main objective of higher education is to develop the personality of an individual in such a way that he/she becomes able to face the challenging and difficult demands of the dynamic and complex society, boldly and efficiently. The Universities should strive for excellence but that excellence has meaning only when it is somehow relevant to our lives and would eventually become instrumental in creating a better human structure.

Administration in Higher Education

The University is one of the most complex of modern organisation, and therefore one of the most difficult to

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administer. The extra-ordinary increase in the volume and diversity of educational efforts at the various levels, have imposed a heavy strain on the existing administration.

Administration, broadly speaking is an activity of groups, co-operating towards a common goal. It consists of an organisation and the use of men and material to accomplish the objective of higher seats of learining. Though these being of academic in nature, but the task cannot be accomplished without an 'administrative' infrastructure. Good administration is reflected by a capacity to keep the eye focussed on basic ends to adopt activities to the attainment of these ends and to ensure continued innovations.

In the present system, administration of the University is despersed rather than centralised. Powers for decision making, the essence of administration, can be located in various bodies of the University. Consequently, the administration in the higher education system developes an unsettled state of mind in the context of conflicting pulls and pressures operating in an institution as part of the functioning of the democractic processes. The administrators have to wait for a policy level consensus or even an implementation-process-consensus, before they can carry out their duties.

Administration involves students, teachers and non-academic staff and is, therefore, joint and collective venture to keep the University Organisation moving. It is the co-ordination of the activities of these people, which involves guidance and leadership towards implementation of objectives and policies of the organisation.

Problems & Challenges

Educational administration is generally tradition-based and tends to rely on rules, statutes, procedures and techniques which have not been changed over the years. The administration is very much office-oriented and fails to catch up with the new tasks and responsibilities entrusted to it by the changing social order. University teachers often complain, the rigid administrative procedures, and finan-

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cial controls hamper departmental initiative, especially in the field of research. The analysis of the management practices of the Universities reveals the following shortcomings :-

i. **Absence of Prospective Plannings** : A major deficiency of the University administration is the absence of prospective planning, which comprises the determination and laying down of objectives, policies, programmes, procedures, methods, systems, budget, standards and strategies. The planning that is resorted to currently in our Universities, pertains to only day-to-day operational matters with very little rather negligible consideration, to such strategies, which might effect positively or negatively to these operation.

ii. **Financial Constraints** : Operational and maintenance grant, allocated by the state Govt provided in the 'routine budget are very limited, The University is usually forced to use part of the development-budget to cover the shortages in the routine expenditure that also, with the concurrence of Financial Adviser. The objective to improve academic quality and to produce high quality man-power is badly hampered due to financial constrants. Although the autonomy is statutorily provided in the frame work of the Universities, yet this appears to be on the paper only, as their relationship with the Government is not in confirmity with their autonomous status. Apart from the built-in situation of financial dependence on Government with the Chief Executive of the University constantly at the doorsteps of Govt., Officials for money, to keep the University going, the autonomy of the Universities is undermined subtle ways by those who have financial administrative clout by interfering and operating extra constitutional pressures.

iii. **Lack of Decision making** : Decisions even on simple and routine matters are not taken expeditiously by the concerned Departments/Section Heads but are passed on to Officers who in turn pass the same to next higher Officers and so on, causing thereby unnescessary delay and resentment among the people. The Vice-Chancellor, as the

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Chief Executive Head, who is expected to devote sufficient time to matters of academic importance, long range planning and development of the University, finds himself encircled with rountine administrative matters irrespective of their importance.

iv. **Selection of the Vice-Chancellor** : In a University set up, the Vice-Chancellor is the Chief Executive and the Principal Academician. On him-depends the future growth and development of the institution. As the Chief Executive, he is expected to regulate the conduct and duties of the employees, to see that the provisions of Act, statutes, the Regulations and the Rules are observed and should lead the University and not just manage it. Thus the choice made in the appointment of the Chief Executive eventually affects the future of the organisation, and the stability and control of the University system. While the office of the Vice-Chancellor is full of troubles, the real misfortune hits a University when a weak and ineffective or unreasonable with bureaucratic tendencies Vice-Chancellor is appointed. There are certain characteristies comprising favouritism, lack of academic and administrative ability, which make a Vice-Chancellor destory the University for a long time to come.

v. **Lack of Co-ordination** : Co-ordination which is the orderly synchronisation of group efforts, so as to provide unity of action in the pursuit of a common purpose, is lacking in the Universities. The Chief Executives are overburden in doing routine work, from sanctioning leave to that of selection of the employees, instead of devoting their attention in co-ordinating the activities of different sections, i.e., students, teachers, non-teaching staff, Government and public.

vi. **Teaching Community** : Teachers who play a vital role in the advancement and the development of the Universities are at times entangled and engrossed in rivalry. The most general problem faced by the administration is the existence and dynamics of rival groups in the teachers. If certain teachers are associated with various activities because of their ability and potentiality, their rivals auto-

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matically become critical of the top administration. Whatever a Vice-Chancellor decides, opposition and stir are bound to be there, unless it is his own resignation. What could do greater harm to a nation than chaos in education.

Rotation of Headship of Departments recently introduced in some Universities, no doubt, enables the Departments to benefit more from young and fresh experience of the individuals concerned. However in certain situation it has meant war of nerves between past/present/future Head of Department, thus hampering the development of the Department and retarding the process of growth of the University.

vii. **Litigation** : Exercise of jurisdiction of Courts in matters pertaining to governance of Universities and operation of statutes and regulations, has frustrated the attempts of the University to introduce discipline among students, teachers and non-teaching staff. When punishment is awarded, after thorough enquiry, the person goes scot free when the punishment is challenged in a court of law on some flimsy technical grounds.

vii. **The students** : The students even though they may have very little role in administration, they are the most important links first because of their numbers and second because of their amenability to exploitation due to inexperience and immaturity.

viii. **Personnels** : Weakness of the existing organisation is related to the personnel. It has varied aspects, like shortage of personnel at the higher level, lack of specialized officers, inexperience and unqualified staff, lack of dedication, inadequate provision of inservice training and unsatisfactory conditions of service. Most of the Universities do not have any job evaluation scheme and whether one works or not, one gets annual increments regularly and even promotion.

The impediments and disincentives stated above are by no means exhaustive. The purpose is not to project the negative perception of the various constituents that go to

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make the present educational syndrome. The truth must be stated, though the perception may not be that objective. The disease must be exposed before the educational doctors in order to arrive at right remedies.

A fellow suggestions to remedy the situation may be worth-considering to make the University administration more effective and dynamic.

There is an urgent need of combined will and effort of the Government, the teachers, the non-teaching staff and the students to help in the proper growth and development of the highest seat of learning. There have been attempts to reform the academic side of the educational institutions, by introducing new ideas and innovations, but seldom was it thought prudent to infuse reforms in the administration of these institutions. If the administrative machinery is over-hauled and exposed to modern ideas and concepts in management and properly trained, it will do a lot of good towards fulfilling the objectives of the University. If the University administration were to work with vision, it must not end by merely assisting the academics in their routine academic work & spending most of their time in solving the problems of Campus people only, it must be closely linked up with the planning for the future of the University, its goals and objectives. Much emphasis should be laid on the academic roles of Universities and not of the administrative roles, otherwise the teachers may see their preferred career paths in administration rather than academic. The higher functionaries are supposed to provide leadership to see the provisions of the Act, the statutes, the Regulations and the Rules are fully observed, otherwise academic standards are lowered and unethical conduct breeds in.

The academician and the administrator are partners, engaged in a great & noble task of maintaining academic standards. The former is capable of advancing intellectual horisons and thus should act as an enlightened adviser in the administration of the University, while the latter must endeavour to make the administration efficient and effective. There seems no conflict of interest between the two.

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There is only community of interest in improving the image of the University in the society. The highly educated, who have chosen for themselves the noblest of all professions represent the elite in the University administration. If they get determined and advise with sincerity and dedications, can any administration in a University ever fail. The Universities should enjoy the autonomous character as envisaged in the Act and lessor government interference be ensured. There should be a unified academic and financial control of the University. Qualified and efficient staff of the higher level be provided and there should be a scheme of evaluation for all the employees and incentives to be given only on the basis of the progress and achievement reports. Even though the University administration consists of the teachers, non-academic staff and the students, it is, the Chief Executive, who has to act as a friend, philosopher, a guide and an efficient administrator. Once having been set on rails, the University administration would definitely fulfil its purpose and accomplish the defined objectives of excellence in teaching and research.

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11

LANDMARKS IN UNIVERSITY DEVELOPMENT

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The concept of the University

The university is "a distinctly medieval institution[1]." The concept of the community of scholars and masters; the theory of corporate existence of a university; the idea of corporate powers to be exercised by the governing boards comprised of external lay members; the use of compulsory titles such as Proctor, Dean, Provost, Rector, and Chancellor; the idea of location; the concept of autonomy; a system of lectures; and a procedure of examinations and degrees-all are inherited from the medieval universities. Their curricula have long been forgotten, but their academic titles, their organization and some of their problems live on. Thus, the universities have shown themselves to be the toughest and the most durable of institutions that have come down from the Middle Ages and upon which society depends so much.

The concept of university as a community of scholars and masters has, however, undergone change from time to time. By and large, it appears that their prevailed two schools of thought in the 19th century. The one emphasized upon pure research, autonomous scholar, academic freedom, new truth and the pure idea of learning. The other stressed on search for wisdom as found in the Classics and as refined and applied through dialogue and free speculation; its accent was not on new truth but on old wisdom. Thus, while the former idealised the university as a center

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of research, the latter considered it as a centre of liberal education. If for one the university was for the specialist, for the other it was for the generalist.[2]

These two conceptual threads of the 19th century schools of thought were subsequently combined and woven when university was conceptualised as "an institution consciously devoted to the pursuit of knowledge, the solution of problems, the critical appreciation of achievement, and the training of men at a really high level ...[3]" But the emerging trends of the 20th century made the universities to cater to the needs of the government, business and other social institutions of the society with the result that the modern university became what Clark Kerr calls the "multi-university[4]".

Despite its ancient precursors, the Indian concept of university dates back from the foundation of the universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1857. They were created by an Act of Legislature and administered by government servants. They, "in their first form were not true universities. They were not corporation of scholars but of administrators, they had nothing to do directly with the training of men, but only with the examining of candidates .... The university being merely a group of administrative boards, had no direct contact with the real work of teaching[5].

The main attributes of a university are :-

i) there is a specified territory over whcih the university exercises its jurisdiction;

ii) Its "population" comprises scholars, students and its employees;

iii) Its "government" consists of senate, syndicate, academic council, Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor;

iv) It enjoys limited sovereignty popularly called autonomy.

In view of the above attributes, the university is given the status of a legal person. It is thus a corporate body

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created in India by a legislative enactment which becomes its constitution.

II. The Pre-Independence Era

The pattern of higher education in India was an outcome of the efforts of the East India Company to introduce Western education under the pressure from progressive native like Raja Ram Mohan Roy. The Charter Act of 1813, the first legislative enactment of public education, inter alia made provision relating to learning and education by appropriating a sum of rupees one lakh from the public revenues. It was the result of this Act that the Government appointed a General Committee of Public Instruction for ascertaining the state of education and utilising the appropriate amount. In this Committee a difference of opinion arose. While the orientalists were for continuing the then existing system of education, the Occidentalists were in favour of imparting the knowledge of Western science and literature through the medium of the English language. But with the appointment of Lord Macaulay as the Law Member as also the President of the General Committee, the pendulum swung to the other extreme. In his Minute, which has since become locus classicus, submitted to the Government, he emphasized the filteration theory stating that the aim should be to form a large class of persons "Indians in blood and colour but English in tastes, in opinions, in morals, and intellect; a class who would serve as intermediaries between government and the masses and this new educated class would influence those below by downward filteration[6]". The Minute was promptly approved and on 7th March, 1835, the Governor-General-in-Council issued the memorable Resolution which decisively asserted the imparting of Western Education through the medium of the English language. The Resolution thus marked the important step in the policy of higher education which remained unchanged for the rest of the century.

It was against this background that the seeds of higher education in India were sowed. It was indeed Sir Charless

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Wood's Educational Despatch[7] of 19th July, 1854 which was fons et origo of modern university education in India. It was "the climax in the history of Indian education; what goes before leads to it, what follows flows from it[8]." The Despatch and the recommendation of the Committee which considered it resulted in the establishment of the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1857 by Act of Legislature.

The universities were merely examining bodies compased of the Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor and the Senate, divided into faculties of the various branches of learning. The heads of the Government, viz., the Governor Genral and the Governors, were respectively the ex-officio Chancellors. It was reserved for them to nominate the Vice-Chancellor. The governing bodies were composed of persons mainly drawn from amongst administrators and public men. If there were teachers, it was by accident and not by right. Thus the governing bodies were official, predominantly administrative in nature.

Thus, the University which emerged from the planning in 1857 was a deliberate exotic of a strangely hybrid kind in that is purposely disregarded Indian culture and traditions[9]. Although based on the university of London, it was assigned different social functions. As against true centre of learning, the university was to provide a test of eligibility of government employment and to transmit an alien culture[10]. Again, the detailed government control undermined the whole academic process.

Thus from a close examination of the origin, growth and development of higher education, the distinctive characteristics that emerge out are that higher education was monopolised by universities, the universities had official domination.

These were the factors that led to the appointment of a Commission in 1882 under the chairmanship of W.W. Hunter to enquire into the general working of the universities. The recommendations of the Commission empha-

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sized, among other things, the encouragement to private enterprise in matters of colleges. The acceptance of the recommendations led to the rapid expansion of higher education which, in turn, led to the deterioration in staffing and teaching standards.

The elective principle introduced in 1890 by Lord Lansdowne increased the dominance of lawyers in the senate and syndicates of universities. Consequently, the governing bodies became large, illcomposed and incompetent in as much as the direction of policy passed into the hands of amateurs, laymen who were willing to connive at the lowering of standards. Thus, by the end of the 18th century, the entire educational system needed reform. And in Curzon, it found its reformers.

Lord Curzon brought a fresh and vigorous approach to the whole field of education, esp., higher education. To him the then prevailing system appeared mechanical, lifeless and perverted. His first impresison was of colleges like so many jarring items, courses geared to the output of quantity rather than quality, senate swollen with Fellows notoriously ill-equipped to their work and abdicated its function to the syndicate dominated by the legal element which acquired influence and power by the default of the Authorities and somnolence of the Government. He, therefore, emphasized the responsibility of Central Government without, however, turning the universities into departments of Government[11].

Hence, in 1902, he appointed the University Education Commission under the chairmanship of Sir Thomas Raleigh. On the recommendations of the Raleigh Commission, the Indian Universities Act was passed and came into operation from 18th Septermber, 1904.

The Act reconstituted the senates by reducing their size; the syndicates received, for the first time, statutory recognition under the chairmanship of the Vice-Chancellor. Teachers, for the first time secured a substantial share in the government of the universities. To tighten the system of affiliation, provision was made for the periodical inspection

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of colleges by the syndicate. The Act also made the universities teaching institutions.

In all this, the aim was to give responsibility to the expert, Curzon declared that "Higher education ought not to be run either by politician or amateurs. It is a science.... in which we might give fair hearing and a reasonable change to the Professor[12]." Thus the educationist was reinstated and politician displaced. But the universities became "the most completely governmental universities in the world"[13] undermining the sense of responsibility of their governing bodies. Yet Curzon had no thought of binding the universities in "permanent swaddling clothes." He insisted that Government wanted expert and not survile senates. His ideal was that of "self-governing institutions watched parentally by the Government in the background." The measure was vehemently opposed by educated Indian throughout the country. They "sincerely thought that the viceroy meant to deal a blow at the university system.[14]"

The provision of instruction was made one of the duties of the universities and for this purpose they were given the power to appoint professors and teachers erecting, equipping and maintaining university libraries, laboratories and museums, and regulating the conduct of students. In addition, Curzon, also provided Rs. 5 lakhs in the shape of annual grant. But truth compels admission that the changes actually brought about were small.

If the earlier universities were started under official auspices, two new denominational universities - The Banaras Hindu University and the Aligarh Muslim University - were incorporated in 1916 and 1920 respectively.

The progress of higher education in British India was not without its impact on the educational policies of the Princely States. Though Mysore was the first State to establish a university in 1916, the establishment of the Osmania University at Hyderabad in October 1918 was a bold attempt, the first of its kind, to impact education through an Indian Language, Urdu, as the medium of instruction at all

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levels and in all faculties including engineering and medicine.

While such was the educational scene on the Indian firmament, the Government of India in 1917 appointed Calcutta University Commission under the chairmanship of Sir Michael Sadler. The Commission proposed radical and fundamental changes in the university governance by emphasizing two objectives: greater involvement and autonomy of the teacher and responsiveness of the university to the needs of the community. "A university needs, for its proper governance, bodies of three kinds. In the first place, in order that it may be kept in touch with the community its exists to serve, it needs a large body widely representative of all the varied interests which are affected by university work .... In the second place, a great university which deals with complex matters needs a small and efficient administrative body, including men with a wide knowledge of affairs, who will be especially responsible for the finance and for the content of the general policy .... But the most essential element in the structure of a teaching university is a strong body, or series of bodies, representing the teachers and endowed with large and independent powers in all purely academic matters.[15]" They designated these three organs as Court, Executive Council and Academic Council. But the most significant feature of their recommendation was the proposal to assign responsibility for academic affairs to a hierarchy of expert academic bodies considered as "the pivot of the system". Collecttively these bodies were to have "predominant voice in all matters affecting curricula and examinations."

The Commission also proposed for the first time, the appointment of full-time salaried vice-chancellor, who should be a man of high academic standing, distinguished record and experience.

They were the first to distinguish between the relative importance of regulations. They graded them, in order of importance, into Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations. Similarly, they proposed for the sanction of block grant to

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be spent at the discretion of the university with only general control of the government. This concept of autonomy was further reinforced by another proposal which stated that all teaching posts should be individually filled up by specifically constituted selection committee.

These developments were under way when the Government of India Act, 1919 was passed adversely affecting the recommendations of the Commission which regarded higher education as an all-India subject. The Act established a system of Dyarchy under which Education together with University Education came under the control of Indian Ministers as a "transferred subject", while finance as a "reserved" subject was under the control of the British Governors. This lacked a central coordinating authority in matters of education. To fill in the vacuum, the Government of India established a Central Advisory Board of Education in 1921 only to abolish it in 1924. It was again reconstituted in 1935. The Board in 1944 published a report known as Sargent Report under the title "Post-war Educational Development in India" which drew attention to several lacunae in the Indian University system, chief among which was the lack of a coordinating body like a Grants Committee.[16] Accepting the suggestion of the Report, the Board recommended to the Government of India for the establishment of a Central Grants Committee, for the assessment and distribution of grants from public funds to universities. Accordingly, the Government of India set up in 1945 a University Grants Committee.

Thus, the system of higher education inherited at Independence was dangerously weak in three ways. First, the Britishers failed to set and maintain the quality of teaching and the standards of achievement essential to a university; second, they failed to devise a content of higher education suited to India's social and economic needs; third, they failed to establish patterns of academic government and relations between universities and State, which would acccord to the university the degree of autonomy necessary for it to serve the society properly.[17]

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III. The Post-Independence Era

With the advent of Independence, Indian Universities entered upon a new phase of their existence with new academic problems and new responsibilities. It was at this time the Nehru gave a new interpretation to the idea of a university when he stated that "A university stands for humanism, for tolerance, for reason, for the adventure of ideas and for the search of truth. It stands for the onward march of human race towards even higher objectives. If the universities discharge their duties adequately, then it is well with the nation and the people".[18]

There arose, therefore, a need for a complete and comprehensive enquiry in all aspects of university education. For this purpose, the Government of India appointed in 1948 the University Education Commission under the chairmanship of Dr. Radhakrishnan.

The Commission pointing out that the universities remained alien-implantation "neglecting India's past" emphasized the new concept of the aims of university education "to provide leadership in politics and administration, the professions, industry and commerce ... to meet the increasing demand of every type of higher education, literary and professional .... enable the country to attain freedom from want, disease and ignorance, by the application and development of scientific knowledge."[19]

One of the highlights of the Report relates to the enhancement and status of the teacher, the kingpin in the whole academic process, "the cornerstone of the arch of education." Further the commission observed that if it had suggested a single reform for Indian education it would be that of examination.

They recommended that the university education should be placed on the Concurrent List of the Constitution. Classifying the universities into unitary, federative, teaching and affiliating and purely affiliating, it recommended the fading out from the Indian scene of affiliating university. The Authorities of the University

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should be the Senate, the Executive council, the Academic Council, the Finance Committee and the Selection Committee. The colleges were classified into two kinds: constitutent and affiliated and again the latter subdivided into two viz., Government and private.

Considering the Vice-Chancellor as "the keeper of the University's conscience, they were of opinion that the university should have a say in his selection."

One of the most important recommendations of the Commission was the setting up of a University Grants Commission with power to allocate grants, both recurring and capital to the Universities. Besides, the system of block grant by provincial Governments should continue.

The University Education Commission broke a new ground when they made the suggestion for the establishment of Rural Universities. But such universities must evolve a distinctive pattern of their own quite different from the traditional form in educational administration.

The year 1950 marks the beginning of a new era establishing India as a Sovereign Democratic Republic. The Constitution Act of 1950, subject to certain reservations, makes the State Government responsible for education including the university education. Under item Eleven of List II of the Seventh Schedule to the Constitution, the legislative power of the State extends to "Education including universities subject to the provision of Entries 63, 64, 65 and 66 of List I and entry 25 of List III."

The Provisions of the Constitution have been responsible for certain developments. Firstly, it was under Entry 66 of list I that the University Grants Commission was established in 1956 by an Act of Parliament. Secondly, the scope of Entry 66 was given a very wide interpretation by the Supreme Court. Thirdly, it was under this Entry that the Union Parliament legislated on all aspects of education including buildings, libraries, courses of study, standards of examination, research, medium of instruction, qualification of teachers and their conditions of service. It was,

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therefore, a matter of extreme difficulty to draw a sharp dividing line between item 11 of List II and item 66 of List I"[20]. Finally, it was suggested that the university and higher education may be transferred to Concurrent List by an Amendment of the Constitution in 1977.

No doubt the Secondary Education Commission (1952) presided over by A.L. Mudaliar suggested the reorganization of the degree courses by adopting three-year degree course, it was the Model Act Committee appointed by the Ministry of Education in December 1961 whose recommendations have a great bearing on the university governance and administration, though, these were, by and large, not implemented.

The University system moved slowly towards the attainment of objectives set forth by the Commission. The progress made by them could even be termed as pathetic without fear of being doubbed as pessimistic. In fact, the observation by Saiyedan from close quarters supports the above contention. He wrote, "There is a general feeling of dissatisfaction with what the universities have been able to achieve. This issue, in spite of the fact that there is apparently an impressive array of research work to their credit, faculties and departments have greatly expanded and much more funds are allotted to their budgets".[21]

The appointment of 16 member Education Commision on July 16, 1964 by the Government of India under the chairmanship of Dr. D.S. Kothari, was one of memorable landmarks in the annals of higher education and educational administration in India. It surveyed education in all its aspects and all stages right from the primary to the university.

The Commission opened its Report thus "The destiny of India is now being shaped in her classroom .... In a world based on science and technology, it is education that determines the level of prosperity, welfare and security of the people".[22] Therefore, there is need for a drastic change, almost a "revolution" of the present education system,

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making it science-based and in coherence with Indian culture so that it serves as an instrument of "modernising democratic and socialist society" in achieving the desired social, economic and cultural objectives. Universities should come out of their ivory towers and perform a wide variety of functions in the educational and development fields. The universities should endeavour "to seek and cultivate new knowledge vigorously and fearlessly in pursuit of truth, and to interpret old knowledge and beliefs ... to provide the right kind of leadership in all walks of life .... to provide society with competent men and women in agriculture, arts, medicine, science and technology .... to strive to promote equality and social justice and to reduce social and cultural differences .... "These objectives can be achieved if the quality and competence of teachers is improved. With a view to attract talented persons to teaching profession, the social status of the teachers should be enhanced by offering them adequate renumeration, opportunities for professional advancement and attractiveionditons of service.

In the realm of higher education, the commission suggested the establishment of half a dozen major universities to indianise the stimulus in academic life, the strenghtening and expansion of advanced centres of learning, improvement of both teaching and evaluation and provision of student welfare. Secondly, they emphasized the coinciding of expansion facilities to manpower needs and employment opportunities, adoption of a programme of selective admissions, expansion of part-time and own-time education.

Coming to the governance of the universities, the Commission opined that autonomy and academic freedom and forward-looking university organization is a must. They have mentioned three levels of autonomy :-

i) autonomy within the university

ii) autonomy of a university in relation to the Univer-

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sity Grants Commission and the Inter University Board (New Association of Indian Universities).

iii) autonomy of the university system as a whole in relation to agencies outisde the system;

In the financial domain, they have recommended that the sytem of university finances should be reorganized by a well-desired grant-in-aid system which should on the one hand, restrict the meticulous control of grant giving authorities, and one the other, inculcate utmost vigilance, care and economy on the part of grant receiving authorities. The block grants by the State Government should be reviewed after a period of three to five years.

The Vice-Chancellor has been described as a person embodying the spirit of academic freedom with a commitment to scholarship and the pursuit of truth. The university should appoint its own Vice-Chancellor, but as a transit measure the Delhi pattern may be adopted. Ministers should not be consulted in making the final choice. The Authorities of the university have been designated as the Court, the Executive Council and the Academic Council. The Court should be a policy-making body consisting of academic and lay members. The Executive Council being an executive body, should be smaller with Vice-Chancellor as the chairman, The Academic Council, the sole authority for all academic matters, should include student's representatives. Besides these authorities, the Commission also recommended the creation of a permanent planning and evaluation machinery to be designated as Academic Planning Boards.

A novel suggestion made by Commission is regarding the jurisdiction of courts over university decisions. The Government of India, in consultation with the Supreme Court, may consider the desirability of framing a suitable policy to help the maintenance of university autonomy.

The universities should grant affiliation in consultation with government because if the former is concerned with academic standards, the latter is responsible for fi-

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nances. In this behalf they have suggested the setting up of a Council of Affiliated Colleges.

With regard to the coordination and promotional agency, the Commission has suggested that all statutory and deemed universities should automatically become members of the Inter University Board which was established in 1925 and now entitled Association of Indian Universities. The other such agency is the University Grants Commission which should play a wider role by representing the entire spectrum of higher education. All institutions concerning higher education, including agriculture, engineering and medicine, should be brought under its purview.

Comittees were appointed by the Ministry of Education, Government of India to look into the various aspects of the recommendations of the Commission. But unfortunately, the pace of implementation was not up to the mark and whatever recommendations that were implemented, they were implemented in piecemeal. Consequently they had little impact on the higher education due to the increases in the number of universities and colleges with consequent swelling of enrolment, emergence of new problems and deterioration of the quality of staff. Thus, University development could not fall in time with the aspirations of a developing society. This state of affairs was also pointed out by the U.G.C. Chairman when she reported that "this expansion is beset with tremendous problems of poor facilities, low quality and marginal relevance. It has also resulted in poor recuritment of staff .... The educational institutions are often divided by caste, communal, parachial and linguistic basis.[23] The reasons for the non-achievement of objectives were :

1. large number of students ;
2. lack of rapport with social needs ;
3. quality decrease in the standard of students ;
4. lack of funds ;
5. dual control
6. lack of employment opportunities for students ;

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7. social pressure ;
8. inferior faculty ; and
9. universities turning into examining bodies.[24]

This was the situation when the UGC appointed the committee to report on the governance of universities and colleges under the chairmanship of Chief Justice Gajendragadkar. Emphasizing the changing role of the universities in the context of national development, the report pointed out that "the function of a university today is not only to enable the students to attain excellence in knowledge, but also to contribute directly to national development, to furnish intellectual and moral leadership to the community at large."[25] To meet this challenge the administrative organization of universities as well as their governing bodies should be reorganized.

While discussing the reconstitution of university Authorities they have recommended that the Court/Senate must essentially be a deliberative body without any power to overrule other Authorities; the Executive Council/Syndicate should not be deemed to be a governing council in hierarchical sense and the Academic Council should be the principal coordinating academic body exercising overall control over the academic policies of the Universities. They also suggested the rationalisation of the faculties and the creation of a number of minor academic bodies like Department Committees, Joint Teacher-student Committees, Students Council, and Committee for Advanced Study and Research.

The President in the case of Central universities and the Governor in the case of State universities should be the Visitor having essentially the supervisory powers of the state. Besides, there should be a Chancellor nominated by the Visitor on the recommendations of the Executive Council for a period of three years.

The Vice-Chancellor should be assisted by a pro-Vice Chancellor to be appointed by the Executive Council on the recommendations of the Vice Chancellor. However, the

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quality of all professors and the autonomy of the teachers must be respected.

The position of the Registrar should be strengthened by giving him advisory initiating role in the administration of the university. They have also suggested the appointment of Treasurer/Finance Officer.

The committee has devoted considerable attention on student's participation and have come to the conclusion that they may be given representation in the Court. But, it is not desirable to give them representation either in the Executive Council or academic bodies.

Number of these recommednations have been introduced in a number of universities. There are now pro-vice-chancellors to help the Vice-Chancellors; departmental committees to democratise the decision-making process; joint teacher-student committees to provide for continouous exchange of ideas between them. Yet, a crisis of confidence is enveloping the universities. Though Education is on the Concurrent List, the Central Government has hardly taken any initiative and, in fact, there is a movement to withdraw it from the Concurrent List and again relist in the State List.[26] The U.G.C. programmes are being vitiated by internal conflicts within the university; the U.G.C. too has become bulky bureaucratic agency caught up in circumlocation office procedures. The State universities unable to strike a balance between autonomy and accountability are experiencing pangs of state intervention.

These external parameters apart, all is not well with the internal functioning of the universities. The authorities in charge of modernising and upgrading syllabi have suffered strokes; the endeavour of reformers suggesting innovations has been blocked and serious students have become victims of academic politics.

Taking a cue from the New Education Policy which has mentioned about National Testing Service, an eminent academician has suggested its creation. The universities today are both teaching as well as teaching and examining bodies.

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With the constitution of National Testing Service responsible for conducting both Post-graduate and under-graduate examinations, the universities will remain only teaching institutions. Thus, there will be a separation of teaching and examination, the former with the university and the latter with the National Testing Agency.[27] But "one hopes that the system does not create "two wordls", one looked upon as superior to the other, in an already fragmented and privileged educational system."[28]

If these innovative reforms are being suggested in Conventional University system, the concept of non-formal and distance education is being materialised through the open university system with all zeal and sincerity. As the Prime Minister said, "We must also have non-formal or distant education .... This would be a system of coaching those people who fail to make the formal system or drop out of the formal system and give them a sort of back up education and bring them up again to the standard and have adequate linkage with the formal system of education[29]...." Thus "to keep the growing demands for higher education while keeping the standard high, it is necessary that programme of non-formal education including distance education, should be strengthened and the enormous potential of modern communication technology should be pressed into service in a large scale. Such programmes permit flexibility in choosing subjects and freedom in learning at one's own initiative, pace and place of work."[30]

The importance of open university and distance education have been recognized by the National Education Policy when it stated "The open university system has been initiated in order to augment opportunities for higher education and as an instrument of democratising education."[31] As regards the media, it says ".... modern educational technology must reach out to the most distant areas and the most deprived sections of beneficiaries simultaneously with the areas of comparative affluence and ready availability."[32] To implement these objectives the open

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university system has been planted on the Indian soil. It is still a delicate plant. Its important features are :-

1. providing educational opportunities to those people who were previously deprived of such opportunities;
2. identification of particular target groups and their key characteristics to enable appropriate course to be designed on a systematic basis ;
3. flexibility in the curriculum ;
4. systematic design of study materials for independent study and provision of feedback from students to learning system staff and vice versa ;
5. use of a variety of media suited to the needs of students ;
6. flexibility in teaching methods and in student groups covered ;
7. centralised mass production of standardised learning material ;
8. use of existing infrastructure ; and
9. scope for lower recuritment unit cost per student than what obtains in the Conventional system.[33]

To conclude, university development has reached a stage where the needs of a welfare state and the defects of the Conventional University system have given rise to a new system, non-formal, autonomous distance education, viz., the open university. These two systems with different structures, different objectives and different methods to achieve these objectives will be running concurrently in our country. Let us hope that these systems become complementary rather than conflicting. Thus, an all-out effort will have to be made to educate the youths of this country. As the Prime Minister has pointed out : "An attempt will be made through formal education, through vocational education and through non-formal education to reach and teach every one who is reachable. At the same time, we must have a system which will reach out to every one, each individual who is

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teachable. For this, we will have to employ every other method that is available to us."[34]

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12

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL SYSTEM — HIGHER EDUCATION

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Introduction

Teacher is most crucial in improving the quality of education and implementation of any educational policy. The ingenuity, innovativeness and the dedication of the teacher is much more important than the resource input. The dedication and ingenuity of teachers can to a great extent overcome deficiences in the resource. The NCT report states that "the difference between the good schools and bad ones, is essentially the difference in the quality of its teachers".

The teacher is called upon to perform a variety of tasks. Continuously changing curricula, students coming from different social background with their own social problems, widely varying expectations, values and interests, the needs of the society and the relevance of the educational system to changing social needs, etc. add to the problems. The teacher has to renew himself to keep up with the explosion of knowledge and develop expertise for effective implementation of the curricula. He has also to build confidence among the students so that he can be effective. He has also to function as a 'builder of bridge between the school and community'. Another role the teacher will have to perform is to help the principal in institutional planning and management.

The National Policy on Education recognises the multiple role the teacher has to perform. In view of the

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crucial role he plays, the teacher deserves recognition. The NPE states that no people can rise above its own teachers. The government and community should endeavour to create conditions which will help motivate and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines". The economic well being of the teacher is also recognised as a pre-requisite. Radha Krishnan Committee Report states that "in this age of money, economy and private motives, in is vain to expect the teachers alone would rise above the spirit of time". The NPE suggests the needs to formulate salary structures and service conditions which would attract and retain competent persons in the educational system.

2. Teacher Development & Performance Appraisal

An effective performance appraisal system(PAS) is recommended by NPE. Understanding the contribution individual teachers to the development of the institution and improvement of students, is vital for any reward system. The PAS should help the teacher to grow academically and professionally. It should help develop initiative and innovativeness in teachers. PAS should not be designed as a punitive instrument against the teachers. Social working groups can be resistant to change. But there is crying need for change in the educational system. PAS cannot be effective unless the teachers consider it for their development. It should become an instrument for development of institution and improvement of educational system.

3. Status and Academic Freedom

The appraisal of performance is sometimes objected pleading that it will affect the status of the teachers and encroach upon the academic freedom. The status of the teacher is to be defended but status is not something that can be demanded as a matter or right. The NCT report states that "the teachers' status is something that can be won by teachers through competance and hard disciplined work and unwavering commitment". Personnel development, aquisition of new knowledge, development of practical skill of teaching and building team work go hand in hand with

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personal and institutional development. PAS should be an instrument to understand relatively the effort made in this direction. Similarly academic freedom is to be defended but there is a need to clarify what it is. Academic freedom can be considered as the right of the citizen to seek the truth and pass it on to others, the right to question, to discover and dissemenate knowledge useful to the society. The price of academic freedom is vigilence against deterioration of standards. PAS can be an instrument in reducing the deterioration of standards.

4. Problems of higher education

Some of the problems faced by higher education system are :

- how to link education with developmental needs of the country
- how to evaluate the efficiency of the higher education system and take remedial steps to improve quality
- how to meet the demands of numbers and equity without affecting excellence and efficiency
- how to introduce and internalise planning process at system and sub-system levels
- how to upgrade the capabilities of the teachers in pedagogy and subject updating and train persons in planning and administrative capabilities at different levels
- how to reorganise administrative structures, coordinating mechanisms and decision making processes without compromising autonomy and accountability
- how to operationalise plans and projects in educational institutions where administrators, supporting staff and others are sensitive to changes and social needs
- how to improve the internal efficiency of the system in the context of the developments in society and the external world.

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The efficiency of higher education system is affected by

- lack of planning and planning experts
- rigid and traditional organisational structure
- centralised or over decentralised system of management
- lack of coordination or over coordination of various sub-systems of higher education
- lack of clarity of relationship between government, UGC and higher education system
- lack of dynamism and rigidity of approach of teaching and administrative staff.

All these call for a dynamism in the system and call for an instiltional plan to overcome at least some of the defficiencies faced by the system. The crucial factor in the preparation of an institutional plan and its implementation is the involvement of the teachers. The team work built up and the tasks assigned to different teachers on the basis of their competencies is most important. each teacher prepares an annual work plan on the basis of the objectives and goals set by the instituion in its plan. Performance appraisal may be looked at from this angle.

5. Teacher Performance

- The performance of teacher in an institution depends upon the physical facilities available in the institution, organisational climate for creative work, staff development programmes, selection policies and the system of rewards and incentives. The competance of the individual, knowledge, commitment and attitude towards work should be able to find expression in the environment in which he is working.

Performance of an individual is a match between the competance and the opportunity available to translate his competance into creative work. However, the institutional situation remaining the same, a relative understanding of the performance of different teachers may be possible by PAS.

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The institutions in our country are working under varying conditions and at different levels of infrastructural facilites. They can be broadly classified as under :

- institution very much deficient in physical facilities and improvement of quality is almost impossible without minimum level physical facilities
- institution where minimum facilities are available but the processes involved are defective. Additional input may not improve the situation much without improving the processes.
- institutions where trained teachers and physical facilities are available but institutional climate for creative work, team work, setting goals of development and planning and management of education etc. to be strengthened.
- institutions where physical facilities and organisational climate are available.

Since the teachers are working in different situations and conditions assessing on a common yardstick may not be justice to the teachers. The improvement brought about in their own environment and the effort each one is putting to bring about improvement in the situation may be a better measure of the capabilities of the teacher. Usually evaluation of a teacher is based on performance of the students in the exams. But the examination results is dependent on the process the student were subjected to earlier, the opportunities for professional improvement of the teacher, etc. results in the exam or improvement in the exam result brought about can be one of the factors of assessment.

Development of teachers, incentives and rewards, opportunities for development of their competance are important for successful implement of PAS. Rewards in terms of recognition and appreciation of good performance and honouring a dedicated teacher can also be incentive.

Any PAS system is expected to be devoid of ambiguity. But since no system is perfect, there should be opportunity for appeal supported by data and evidence. The decision

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about appeals and grievances should be taken within reasonable time, say within 3 montsh.

6. Constraints in teacher participation

Indequate participation, lack of openness and objectivity, the near absence of data makes the present system of confidential report inadequate, to take any worthwhile decision. Other deficiencies are :

- poor linkage with career/staff development
- lack of physical resources, poor work distribution and unsympathetic managerial process making it difficult for the teachers to take initiative for making improvements in their own areas of competance
- very little opportunity for teachers to participate in the planning process in improving the curricula, staff development and institutional planning, etc.
- the absence of previously agreed standards of performance against which the teacher could be appraised.
- absence of reward system which will motivate teachers to perform more effectively
- a fear that appraisal data could be used for punitive purposes instead of formative purposes.

Any performance appraisal system should lead to the development of individual teachers and institutions and should contribute to improvement of quality and better performance by students. Such a system should enable the teacher to perform the variety of roles expected of him. The role of the teacher is crucial in regenerating the educational system. The major question is how to create conditions in which the teacher will be able to put in his best and how objectively his performance can be assesseed eliminating prejudices. A well conceived staff development programme and a reward system should be part of PAS. There is an urgent need for introduction of such a performance appraisal scheme.

The NPE states that "a system of teacher evaluation will be created and reasonable opportunities of promotion

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to the higher grade provided. Norms of accountability will be laid down tih incentives for good performance and dis-incentive for non-performances".

7. The proposed System

7.1 Objectives

The objective of the PAS is enhancement and development of professional competence of the teacher which will serve the larger interests of the teacher, the student and the institution. The NPE recommends that the performance appraisal system should be :

a. Open

b. Data-based, and

c. Participative

It should also be development oriented and simple in operation.

7.2 Multiple Role of the Teacher

Every report on education has emphasised the multiple role the teacher is expected to perform. Some of these roles are listed below and the teacher can be assessed on these major spheres of work :

a. Teaching in classroom situation

b. Preparation of reading materials, handouts and publication development of laboratory tests, etc.

c. Research

d. Extension work and building a bridge between community and institution

e. Participation in the management of education and student service.

7.3 Individual Work Plan

The NCT report recommends that it is necessary to maintain a continuous record of a teacher's work - teaching, research development of reading material, extension and administration. The report recommends that :

1. Every teacher may be requested to prepare an annual plan of his work and submit it to the Head

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of the institution before the year commences and may also be circulated to the students as well.

2. Maintenance of record of the all-sided contribution of teachers : this can be done most effectively by the teacher himself. It is suggested that every teacher should maintain a register in which he records his activities of each working day.
3. It is the responsibility and duty of the head of the institution to monitor the progress of work in terms of the time frame provided by the annual plan

The above recommendations can be used with advantage. A teacher may ask for assessment in any or every one of the role listed earlier. He is being assessed with reference to his own work plan submitted at the end of previous year and also on the report of implementation of his work plan at the end of the academic year. The feed back information can be collected from students also about the implementation of the work plan and the benefit they have drived from it. The data collected from students may be for corroborative purposes rather than evaluative purposes. The questionnaire may be framed accordingly. The teacher may evaluate himself. The Head of the Institution on the basis of the work plan and its implementation submitted by the teacher, the corroborative data collected from the students and his own assessment and understanding may rate the teacher in the form *Appendix-I.*

The Head of the Department/Principal on the basis of available data and on the basis of the assessment may also record his rating. Rating by the poor group can also be considered wherever it is possible.

7.4 Can teaching be evaluated :

Often a doubt is raised as to whether it is possible to evaluate good teaching. In research, the candidate prepares a paper or a thesis based on the data he has collected. All these are presented as evidence in support of his work and conclusions. It is open to others to differ from him and question the evidence and data presented by him and

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suggest other methods and offer suggestions and criticisms. The same procedure can be adopted in the assessment of teaching as well. The teacher can produce any material or data as evidence in support of his work as a teacher. The materials can include course plan, handouts, audio-visual aids development or used, publications, results in the exams or any other material the teacher would like to produce as evidence. His superiors and collegues can study the data and evidence produced and offer their comments, suggestions and criticism. The data and information collected from students can be supporting or corroborative evidence. The data collected may be on the following points :

a. What was the plan of action

b. How much of the plan could be implemented

c. What are the result of his work plan

d. What others think about it

7.5 Weightage

The different tasks to be performed by the teachers are not of equal importance. The varied talents of the teachers are utilised for the development of the students and improvement of the instituion. The primary task of a teacher in a unversity is teaching and research and a weightage of about 45 per cent for teaching including preparation of reading material and 30 percent for research making a total of 75 per cent for academic activities and the balance 25 per cent for other activities seem to be reasonable. The major heads like teaching, research, etc. can be further subdivided into different activities and weightage for each activity can be assigned. In colleges, more importance is being given to-teaching and the weightage for it can be increased. So also in universities if the emphasis is more on research, its weightage can be increased. The suggestion is only to emphasis that all activities of a teacher should be given some measure of recognition. Percentage of weightage are only suggestions and will have to be discussed widely before accepting it. Periodic review of the weightage may

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also become necessary. A schematic arrangement of the PAS system is given below :

↓

Formulation of Institutional Goals and Objectives

↓

Formulation of individual work plan

↓

Work Plan and data collecting from teacher about implementation	Data collection by Head of the Institution about implementation	Data from students about effective implementation of work plan

↓

Rating by the teacher

↓

Rating by peer if attempted

↓

Rating by Head of the Institution/Deptt.

↓

Rating by Higher authorities

↓

The rating from each task to be transferred to the work plan of the individual (Appendix-I). Self rating and rating by others are entered in appropriate columns. The aggregated rating will have to be arrived at by multiplying each rating by the weightage assigned to the task thereby computing

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the weightage average which will be the rating assigned to a teacher in a particular year.

Within each instituion PAS Committees may be constituted to advise the Head of the Institution on actions related to rewards and staff development programmes.

7.6 Incentives and Rewards

The PAS is for improving the performance of the teachers for the purpose of promoting the quality and excellence in education. Incentives and rewards for good performance is essential for motivating the teachers. At present a limited number of state and central government awards are the only recognition the teacher gets. A large number of non-monetary rewards like recognition of good performance and honouring dedicated teachers are to be introduced. Best teacher award of the school for the year should be rewarded suitably and monetary reward at least for the best teacher of the institution is very much desirable.

7.7 Conditions for effective implementation

For proper implementation of PAS for teachers, work climate in which not only the teachers but every other category in the hierarchy, is motivated to do his work conscientiously and evaluated is necessary. The effort directed solely for staff development is ill spent if not accompanied by an equal concern to improve the structures and procedures in the education system.

The teacher should get an opportunity to exercise his creativity and professional ability to improve the teaching learning environment. Evaluation without giving weightage to the specific situation of an institution may not also yield the desired result. Political will is essential for bringing about such a desired change in the educational system.

7.8 Performance appraisal of the Head of the Institution and other Officers

All the officers concerned with the educational process should be evaluated objectively by suitably methods. The role to be performed by the Head of Institution/Deptt. will

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be different from that of the teachers. The teaching role of the head of the institution/deptt. may be evaluated in the same way as other teachers. Leadership role, management capacity, etc. are to be assessed seperately.

7.9 Strategy for implementation

The introduction of a system of performance appraisal for teachers is an important step and state and central government should be committed to it. State level and national level workshop are to be organised for improving the proposed scheme. The teachers organisation should also be involved in the discussion for better acceptability. The scheme with improvements suggested by national workshops should be tried in selected institutions orientation programme for the staff of these institutions are to be organised. Data to be collected from these pilot trials can be utilised for improving the scheme and for avoiding mistakes. The scheme can be extended to more areas as and when we gain more experience.

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Appendix-I

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

To be used by self/Head/Higher authorities

1. Improvement needed; 2. Satisfactory; 3. Good; 4. Excellent.

S. No.	Items	Rating				Weightage	Self	Head	Higher authorities
		1	2	3	4				
I.	**INSTRUCTIONAL**								
	a. Teaching in the class								
	b. Instructional materials produced								
	c. teaching aids used								
II.	**RESEARCH**								
	a. Individual research								
	b. team research								
	c. research guidance								
	d. equipments fabricated								
III.	EXTENSION WORK/ CONSULTANCY								
IV.	PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT/ STUDENT SERVICE								
V.	ANY OTHER IMPORTANT WORK								

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Appendix-II

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL

To be used by self and Head of Deptt./PRINCIPAL

Name ______________________ Designation ______________

Institution __________________

S.No.	Tasks	Self	Head of the Deptt./Principal
I.	**INSTRUCTIONAL**		
	a. Hours of teaching		
	b. New subjects taught		
	c. Type of reading material prepared		
	d. Student project supervised		
	e. Books published		
	f. Video-scripts, etc prepared/used		
	g. Extension lectures delivered		
	h. Any other instructional tasks		
II.	**RESEARCH**		
	a. Research papers published up to the previous year		
	b. Pepers published during the year		
	c. Citation index		
	d. Research in progress: (i) individual (ii) in group		
	e. Ph.D. Student : (i) completed (ii) being supervised		

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S.No. Tasks	Self	Head of the Deptt./Principal
f. Honours and awards g. Quantum of funds generated		
III. **EXTENSION/ CONSULTANCY**		
IV. **PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT** a. Types of management tasks b. Hours spent for management c. Student activities d. Organisation of seminars/ conferences		
V. **ANY OTHER IMPORTANT ACTIVITY**		

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Appendix-III

FEED BACK ON INSTRUCTION

Year __________
(to be filled in by Students - annonymous)

Subject _____________ Teacher ____________ Institution _____________

O. Unable to decide; 1. Definitely No; 2. No; 3. Yes; 4. Definitely Yes

S.No.	Academic Work	0	1	2	3	4
1.	Was the course divided into units					
2.	Was the teacher regular in class					
3.	Did the teacher come well prepared for lecture most of the times					
4.	Was the progress of the course logical & relevant					
5.	Was the clarity of presentation satisfactory					
6.	Was the discussion after lectures					
7.	Did the teacher emphasise important points for clarity					
8.	Was the teacher successful in explaining difficult concepts					
9.	Did the teacher affectively use examples and illustrations to help clarity					
10.	Was the teacher accessible for consultations					
11.	Were test papers and assignments discussed adequately on return					

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S.No. Academic Work	0	1	2	3	4
12. Did the tutorials contribute to the understanding of the subject better					
13. Did your interest on the subject increase as a result of teaching					
14. Was regular attendance of the class essential for good performance in exams					
15. Were the students encouraged to ask questions					
16. Was the reading material supplied useful					
17. Were video/audio, etc. used					
How many lectures were schedules for the semester/year					
How many lectures were held during the semester/year					

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ACCREDITATION OF INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION — AN APPRAISAL

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If we look back into the past four decades, we find that despite some improvement, the education scenario of the country does not present an encouraging picture. Although percentage literacy since independence has improved considerably yet 55% of the world's illeterates live in India. Moreover, the spread of education has not been uniform in the country. There are regional imbalances and there is disparity in the spread of education among men and women. This reflects bias based on region and sex. Thus some of the primary goals which education seeks to achieve have not been sufficiently achieved. Education is considered to be key to enlightenment but it does not seem to have solved many of our ticklish problems. Some of the bleak areas where education has made very little impact are population explosion, communalism, casteism, regionalism, social injustice, ethical values and status of women in the society. At the global level social and political changes are taking place at startling rapidity. This reflects maturity of mind amongst the people of these vibrant societies. It is well known that the quality of education has played a key role as a vehicle of social and political change in these dynamic societies.

Educational planners have for long felt concerned about the decadence and the ineffectiveness of our educational system. Efforts have been made to remedy the situation by appointing commissions and committees so as to provide meaningful direction to our educational system and

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to make it effective and viable. A recent effort has been the compilation of a document in 1986 on new educational policy. The document claims that a totally new direction would be given to higher education in the country. Emphasis has been laid on making education goal oriented and socially relevant. The document generated considerable debate and controversy and even in the face of some stiff opposition, the new educational policy was adopted by the then Congress Government for implementation. With the change in government at the centre, a committee headed by Acharya Ramamurthy was appointed to review the New Educational Policy. The recommendations of the committee have recently been made public, these have generated more constroversy and more debate and the process goes on and on.

One of the objectives laid down in the new educational policy was to devise ways and means of monitoring the effectiveness of the educational system. A system of accountability was sought to be introduced. Since the emergence of a large number of autonomous colleges was envisaged, it was felt that the need for an effective monitoring system would also be greater. It was decided to introduce a system of accreditation as a part of the new educational policy. A committee headed by Dr. Vasant Gwarikar submitted a comprehensive proposal for setting up an Accreditation and Assessment Council. The report of the committee was released by the University Grants Commission in 1987. This proposal has again generated a lot of debate and no final decision with regard to setting up of an Accrediation and Assessment Council has as yet been taken.

The concept of accreditation of educational institutions is in fact a borrowed one. Accreditation is prevalent in U.S.A., Canada, U.K. and several other European countries. Accreditation is followed in U.S.A. where a university complex may have many constituent colleges each, with its own separate disciplines and programmes, but the university functions as a whole unit. In addition there are community colleges which function independently and cater to the

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diverse needs of the community. While the university colleges require accreditation by the university for funding, the community colleges do not require university funding. Their financial requirements come from the community and not from the government and hence do not require accreditation. The community colleges therefore enjoy a great deal of freedom and flexibility in their academic programmes and in framing their courses and syllabi.

In U.K. there are 46 universities, these are empowered by a Royal Charter to award their own degrees. There are 30 polytechnics and 15 central institutions which provide most of the advanced full time courses. The central institutions offer courses leading to first degree in arts and science. Their courses are validated by a Council of National Academic Awards. There is no formal national system of accreditation in U.K. There are, however, three different bodies to which private institutions may apply for inspection and accreditation. These are : The British Accreditation Council for Higher Education, The British Council Recongnition Advisory Committee and the Council for Accreditation of Correspondence Colleges. As a result of the Education Reform Act of 1988 the power to confer the Bachelor, Master and Doctoral degrees rests with certain specified bodies or institutions. The names of such bodies or institutions are issued by the Department of Education and Sciences from time to time.

The Indian scenario is, however, complex and somewhat confusing. Many of our universities run their own under-graduate and post-graduate teaching programmes. Others have their affiliated colleges running their own post-graduate departments. Most of the universities, however, have provision for teaching as well as affiliation. In most cases, the universities exercise academic and administrative control over the affiliated colleges with powers to inspect and disaffiliate an institution which falls short of certain defined requirements. It is, however, a bitter truth that such assessment procedures exist more on paper than in practice and there is hardly any instance of an instituition having ever been disaffiliated.

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The universities are governed by the University Grants Commission which lays down rules and regulations not only for starting new universities but also for starting new programmes and courses in established universities, U.G.C. is also the financial body which provides funding for new faculty positions and new courses for the Plan period. These positions and programmes become a liability of the State Government after the Plan period. U.G.C. has statutory powers to derecogniese a university. It has the authority to review and monitor the functioning of a University.

During the last decade or so, State Governments all over the country have assumed the responsibility of providing financial assistance to the universities and colleges and have also acquired the right to accord permission for starting new colleges and introducing new courses.

It is thus clear that a multidimensional structure for overviewing the performance of institutions of higher learning already exists in the country. Several bodies are involved in a heirarchical system to exercise control over the institution. Because universities and colleges are wholly dependent on governments for financial grants, the autonomy of these institutions becomes drastically diluted.

It is agreed that the ultimate standard of performance of a university is judged by the standard and credibility of its examinations. It is also agreed that some universities maintain a higher standard of examinations whereas others do not. The extent and magnitude of malpractices that has plagued our examination system is too well known to be discussed here. In view of this, the U.G.C. has started a national testing service to determine eligibility of candidates for post-graduate fellowships and for faculty positions. There is a proposal to evolve such a system for undergraduates so as to delink degrees from performance and jobs.

Professional institutions have their own riders and are expected to follow rules and regulations formulated by professional statutory bodies such as Indian Council for

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Technical Education, Medical Council of India, All India Association of Chartered Accountants, Bar Council of India and others.

Besides, there exists a voluntary association called the Association of Indian Universities. Its functions are to co-ordinate the work of Indian universities, act as a bureau of information, facilitate the exchange of teaching faculty, obtain recognition for degrees by other universities in India and abroad and act as mouth piece of the universities in national and inter-national forums.

The salient features of the system of accreditation contained in the concept paper submitted by Gwarikar Committee may now be briefly discussed. The aims and objectives of the Accreditation and Assessment Council are primarily to see whether goals and missions of institutions desiring to be members are achieved and whether these institutions are maintaining a higher level of integrity and quality which entitles them to the confidence of educational community and the public they serve. For becoming accredited, the institution has to make a proposal which clearly lays down the goals and missions; and spells out efforts to measure the progress in attaining these objectives. The interests taken into account are those of students, faculty, administrators, trustees, alumni and the society. The Accreditation Council sends a team to visit the institution. The team comprises educationists, specialists, and members representing public. The team prepares an evaluation report which is then discussed and reviewed by the Accerditation Council. The evaluation forms the basis for accreditation status to the institution or to a programme. Accreditation is valid for a specified period and is subject to review after that.

The principal objectives of accreditation are :

1. To foster excellence in higher education and to develop uniform national criteria and guidelines for assessing educational effectiveness.
2. To assist institutions in improving self study and review.

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3. To gain confidence of the community that the institution has appropriate objectives in keeping with needs and aspirations of the community and in maintaining conditions which enable it to achieve its objectives.
4. To provide assistance and direction to develop institutions and to help them in maintaining freedom.

Accreditation is not for grading the quality of institutions. It is basically a recognition that the institution has achieved its goals and missions commensurate with the excellence and quality required.

Accreditation is voluntary and is for all institutions which desire it. In course of time institutions which do not get accreditation would not be favoured by the students.

Certain qualitative criteria have been laid down for assessment and accreditation.

These criteria are :

1. **Institutional missions and objectives** : These should be practical and socially relevant.
2. **Evaluation and planning** : There should be a viable machanism for effective periodic self evaluation. Planning should take into account State and Central Plans.
3. **Organisation and governance** : There should be published statutes and regulations defining the powers of each organisational component. Interests of the faculty and community should be properly represented in overall policies of the institutions.
4. **Programmes and institutions** : The undergraduate programmes should have a component on humanities and social sciences. There should be appropriate means of monitoring the effectiveness of the academic programmes. Besides, there should be some means of assuring that the number of working hours per day planned for a course are actually utilized.

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5. **Faculty :** The faculty should be academically sound, and professionally committed to discharge their responsibilities. Conditions for recruitment, promotion, security of tenure, and other conditions should be well defined in consonance with the dignity of the academic profession.

6. **Student service :** Admission procedure should be orderly and ethical. There should be special provisions for socially and economically disadvantaged groups. There should be a provision for career counselling and grievance redressal.

7. **Library and learning resources :** Books, non print materials and study space should be adequate.

8. **Financial resources :** The institution should be financially stable. It should have control over its financial resources, it should be free from undue influence and pressures from external funding sources.

9. **Physical facilities :** Buildings, grounds and equipment should be adequate. These should be properly maintained and in an aesthetically pleasing environment. Classrooms and laboratories should be properly equipped and adequate in number and size.

10. **Ethichal practices :** In all its dealings the institution should show concern for basic values and observe the spirit as well as the letter of legal requirments.

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ROLE OF VICE-CHANCELLOR

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Perhaps no other functionary combines in himself so many positions, administrative, executive and of deliberative nature, as the Vice-Chancellor. He is the pivot around whom the entire university administration revolves. He is at once the chairman of the deliberative, executive and administrative bodies of the university. He is the vital link, "a hyphen that joins and a buckle that binds" the administrative and academic wings of the university. He is thus an officer in whom academic and administrative duties coalesee. He is also a channel of communication between the university and the outside world, whether the funding agencies like the State Government, or the University Grants Commission, professional bodies like the Association of Indian Universities or similar associations at the Commonwealth and world levels, sister universities within and outside the State. The Central and State Governments drawn upon his expertise in the field of higher education for formulating academic policy. Thus, "no other enterprise would impose on its chairman the variety and burden of the work that the modern university requires of its vice-chancellor.[1]" All this assumes the importance of his role in a modern university.

The question then arises unbidden to the lips as to what type of man should this chairman be ? If an eminent administrator has a love for bureaucratic attitudes of control, the renowned teacher has an acdemic outlook; if a judge has legal acumen, the politician is a statesman and

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philanthropist. But since the university is organised for thought, perhaps, a distinguished and renowned teacher with commitment to scholarship and acadmic values with administrative experience will be a better choice.'[2]

Powers and Duties. In its early development, the administration of the university was a model of simplicity. There were few tasks to be performed. No separate caste of administrators was required. The Vice-Chancellor managed the university with the assistance of the faculty and a small band of administrators headed by the Registrar. He was the chief administrator of the institution in fact as well as in name. Being a scholarly man like that of a faculty member, he was able to maintain active involvment in academic affairs while performing the administrative duties. There was no tendency to look upon him as the chief executive of the bureaucratic appratus distinct from the faculty. The faculty member and the Vice-Chancellor consulted daily, each was familiar with the work of the entire institution, a spirit of cooperation and loyalty prevailed. The Vice-chancellor, thus, retained supervisory powers over educational arrangements plus the emergency powers, subject to reporting of the action to the compentent collective authority, with a duty for the observance of the Act/Charter.

This administrative simplicity fell victim to the expanding and changing demands of the higher education. The ushering in of independence, the welfare state commitments resulting in the increase in the number of colleges with a simultaneous growth in enrolment and a consequent increase in the size of the faculty due to knowledge explosion, made the Vice-Chancellor unable to manage the managerial as well as academic responsibilities with the limited powers vested in him. The result was enlargement in the range of his powers with the strengthening of his position among the university officers and Authorities, so much so that the office of the Vice-Chancellor today has becaome the cornerstone of the educational as well as administrative edifice.

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The range of Vice-Chancellor's functions is great. He is the ceremonial head of the university in the absence of the Chancellor. He is vital soruce of senatorial decisions; subject to the syndicate/Executive Council, he is the final source of all executive and academic decisions and he is the authoritative interpreter of the rules and regulations of the university. The question arises as to the reasons that have made such large powers to cluster around a single functionary; the sources which have given him authority and the roots from which this authority is derived prima facie there are two sources of the Vice-Chanellor's powers: One is the Act, while the others are the Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations; but coupled with these there is the usage and emergency.

He is responsible for the administration of the Act, Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations. He must apply them, protect them and see their compliance. He has the right of their interpretation and application to concrete cases. His power is not absolute; appeals are possible from any of his decision to the proper university Authority, to the Chancellor and also the courts. These powers which, except by amendment to the Act, can neither be weaken nor taken away but on the other hand expanded and strengthened, make the Vice-Chancellor the first man in the university having not only the right but the duty to do whatever needs of the university demand, unless such action is forbidden by the Act and rules.

In addition to this, the statutory delegation in one of the important sources of the Vice-Chancellor's reservoir of power. When the univeristy establishes new departments, creates new posts, it is automatically enlarging the Vice-Chancellor's power of appointment and removal. Similarly the University Authorities, on their own initiative, delegate him authority with a view to enable him to meet the extraordinary situations.

The Vice-Chancellor's powers and duties have also been acquired by usage. He has been acknowledged as the leader of the univeristy by virtue of which he has acquired

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a right to be consulted on all matters affecting the interests of the university.

The framers of the University Acts, I suppose, desired to create an executive and academic head sufficiently strong to ensure the faithful execution of the Act, Statutes and Ordinances and yet not so strong as to place the university in a matrix of dictatorial authority. But institutions are living things. They are dynamic and not static. They hardly remain what the law makes them. They accumulate around them conventions and traditions. The same happened in the case of Vice-Chancellor with the result that statutory powers have given rise to non-statutory powers which are strengthened by the interperative clauses of the Act. This has made the Vice-Chancellorship one of the paramount importance.

The powers of the Vice-Chancellor can be conveniently considered under the following three heads:

(*i*) administrative

(*ii*) financial; and

(*iii*) academic.

(*i*) Administrative Powers. As the head of the administration or the administrator-in-chief, the Vice-chancellor is responsible for the entire administrative management including the responsibility to maintain discipline among all constitutents of the university—the faculty, the administration and students. In this capacity, he has to perform many functions and for this purpose, he is granted a number of administrative powers which may be arranged under the following heads:

(a) formulation of administrative policy;

(b) direction of administration;

(c) powers in the domain of personnel;

(d) power of coordination; and

(e) power of delegation.

(a) Formulation of Administrative Policy. The Vice-Chancellor shapes and determines policy. The policy is

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formulated by the Senate/Court and the Syndicate/Executive Council as well as the Academic Council. These Authorities make Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations respectively in general and broad terms. It is the Vice-Chancellor who invests them with details to make them fit for application. This may be termed as the adminsitrative policy through which the Vice-Chancellor carries the will of the University into effect. He determines priorities, sets the tone and takes the initiative. Also, he may be consulted by teachers and administrators on questions that are novel, that involve principle, that are controversial or otherwise important.

(b) Direction of Administration. The Syndicate wields great control over administration. Nevertheless, the Syndicate cannot administer; it is the Vice-Chancellor who is the head of the university administration. He is enjoined by the Act to take care that the Act, Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations are duly observed with power to interpret them, though the Chancellor is made the final appellate authority. The Vice-Chancellor is also made responsible for giving effect to the decisions of the Authorities of the university. This makes him responsible for the entire university administration manned by a number of teachers and administrators.

To driect this administrative leviathan the Vice-Chancellor not only possesses a general supervisory power over all institutions and departments of the university but also is granted the power of inspection and enquiry. If the Vice-Chancellor smells a rat, he may institute an enquiry which may be either departmental or through independent enquiry committee, sometimes chaired by a judge. Enquiry committees may also be appointed on receipt of complaints about wrong admissions, financialirrgularities and favouritism in the disbursement of scholarships, freeships and bursaris.

The direction of administration also includes the power to issue executive orders. The Authorities have delegated broad grants of power to the Vice-Chancellor under

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which he makes rules. Indeed the Vice-Chancellor today has become an important soruce of university law. Furtner, he issues directives, orders, circulars and instuctions to make his will felt and also to make administrative and teaching activities confrm to the Act, Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations. Indeed the tone of administration is largely set by the quality and quantity of these directives.

(c) Powers in the Domain of Personnel Management. Connected with the power of interpretation of the Act, Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations is the power to appoint, dismiss and remove officers and staff. The Vice-Chancellor in order to impart the correct tempo to the operation of university, must arrange for recruitment and promotion of efficient, honest and univeristy-wide mission officials to fill the teaching and administrative posts. The appointing power becomes important in the sense that it gives the Vice-Chancellor the means to command allegiance of a large number of univeristy employees and enables him to see that the Act and the university rules are faithfully executed. Thus, the Vice-Chancellor takes an active interest in the faculty selection devoting a lot of time days together usually at the start of the academic year. Fateful as the appointing power is, it is hedged with far-reaching restrictions as, for example, faculty appointments are made on the recommendations of the Selection Committee chaired by him. Yet his role in the selection process has been affected by the presence of subject specialists acting as experts on the Selection Committee. Functioning more as an impartial observer allowing a wide margin to expert members, transmitting his own judgement as the judgement of others, he influences selections indirectly rather than directly. Yet, he possesses a power of veto. He may not recommend a candidate but certainly he has a right to object as the trustee and guardian of the interests of the university. This may delute the opinion of experts and induce them to fall in line with his opinion, but such situations are rare at least in some of the universities where the selections are, by and large, impartial. In the case of selections to non-academic

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posts, he has a greater latitude to hire and promote in cooperation with the Syndicate.

A concomitant of the power to appoint is the power to punish even by removal. The appointing power may be successful as advice for transmitting university purposes to the teaching and administrative bureaucracy. If the expectation and hope is not fulfilled, the power of punishment, including the power of removal, may be necessary in order to permit another better choice. The executive powers are delegated to the Vice-Chancellor, with a view to superintend, control, inspect and check the officers employed in administering the Act and rules. The only bond between him and those who are employed is the confidence he has in their integrity and talents; when that confidence ceases, he ought to have the power to punish those whom he can no longer trust with safety. However, limitations have been placed on the arbitrary use of this power.

The role of service unions and associations in the university have challenged the authority and role of the Vice-Chancellor in personnel matters. These unions are of two types: professional association of teachers and employee unions. If the former rarely represent the claims of teachers viciferously at least in some universities in the South, if not in the North, the latter are organised along party lines and bring in trade union leaders, leaders of political parties and even student leaders to press their demands successfully. Their role, esp. in transfers is compelling.

(d) Power of Coordination. The Vice-Chancellor has the responsibility of coordinating the operation of all faculties. The total work of the university is chopped off into many administrative as well as teaching departments and institutions for accomplishing the general, specialised and skilled operations. But usually departmentalisation leads to compartmentalisation, nourishes interdisciplinary jealousy, and encourages alienation and obstructionism among departments and when rivalry sets in, functionaries forget that the university is a functioning whole. Therefore,

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in order to create unity in this huge mass of diverse activities, coordination becomes essential. And it is the Vice-Chancellor who coordinates the work of all faculties and the different branches of teaching and administration through Deans and Registrars respectively. He also coordinates through collective agencies like interdepartmental committees and through staff and liaison officers.

(e) **Power of Delegation.** In order to facilitate the work and also to save himself from the weight of accumulated duties, the Vice-Chancellor delegates functions and authority. He may do so by written and verbal orders. The matters concerned may range from those of great importance to ones that are merely routine. He is also authorised to delegate to a Board or Committee or an officer, duties and powers assigned to him. But more important is to see that powers so delegated are exercised with further delegation down the line. However budgetary responsibility and the final authority for admissions which are basic to the functioning of the university cannot be delegated.

Thus, the administrative role of the Vice-Chancellor is enshrined in his power to superintend, facilitate, develop, operate and lead. But his seemingly powerful decision-making authority depends on the competency and the loyalty of the staff. When distrust surrounds, the Vice-Chancellor suffers from debilitating and inhibiting strains. The administrative organization in a university, as is well-known, is not well-structured, areas of responsibility are not adequately defined and the chains of command are hazy and confused. As in government bureaucracy, administrative foibles like those of practising fait accompli and passing the buck have become the mark of the office holders.

The statement that the Vice-Chancellor can give commands which shape all things for which he is responsible appears to be unreal. The university is staffed by personalities of varying strength who are in positions of varying influences. A touchy faculty member, a thorny Dean, a secretive Registrar, an intriguing Controller of Examinations, and a rule-minded bureaucratic Finance

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Officer may put spokes in the otherwise straight path of the Vice-Chancellor.

(ii) Financial Powers. The Vice-Chancellor is the fiscal manager of the university. He is responsible for developing a financial programme covering both income and out go for university expenditure. He does this in the shape of guidelines he issues to the Registrar in the preparation of the budget to be presented to the Senate through the Syndicate. After the budget is passed by the Senate, it is he who, under the general control of the Syndicate, supervises the expenditure through institutional instrumentalities. No department can afford to ignore his authority. It is this budgetary authority which enables the Vice-Chancellor to review the entire scope of the administrative work of the university.

Besides the budgetary powers, the vice-chancellor is given a numbr of financial powers to control the finances to the university. These include powers of reappropriation, regranting amount once sanctioned but could not be utilised, sanctioning expenditure upto a prescribed limit, and writing off of irrecoverable losses. Under the emergency powers, he can sanction funds over and above the budget for meeting immediate and unforseen expenses.

Thus, the Vice-Chancellor is the central figure in deciding questions relating to current and longterm financing of the university. Of course, each proposal cannot be examined from a scratch; his influence is exercised through shaping and reviewing the work of others.

The University is always financially pinched. It is always short of money with limitless aspirations. The Vice-Chancellor has, therefore, to approach the government as a fund raiser. He endeavours his best to develop cordial relations with the ministers and officials at the centre and the State as well as those in the University Grants Commission. When funds are acquired with such difficulties, obviously, he has to see to it that expenditure is prudently planned. In every allocation of funds, he is deciding institutional and educational destiny; to say 'yes' to one request

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is to say 'no' to probably half a dozen requests. Thus, he must be selective about expansion and at the same time increase the vitality and growth of the university. In short, he must be extravagant in the right place and niggardly in the right place.

(iii) Academic Powers. The Vice-Chancellor is not only the chief executive officer but also the chief academic officer of the university. He, therefore, enjoys academic powers together with administrative and financial powers. In the realm of academic affairs, he possesses wide powers to control the faculties and the departments. Though outside these bodies, he is able to exercise over them more influence than even their chairman.

The Vice-Chancellor is the final authority with regard to admissions. All admissions are finalised by the different Admission Committees in accordance with the Rules of Admission and ordinarily approved by the Vice-Chancellor. But since admissions are controlled by rules made not only by the university but also by the Central and State Government, the Vice-Chancellor is very keen in having a detailed scrutiny. The admission power keeps the Principals and Deans under continuous survellance of the Vice-Chancellor.

The role of the Vice-Chanceller as a distinguished educator exercising independent and unchallenged authority, active in the affairs of the university, an accomplished leader of his faculty and revered guardian of students no longer holds good.[3] Today, academic leadership has shifted from this authoritative approach to a more democratic and consultative approach. Again, the departments are divided into hostile camps based not merely on academic issues but also on regional, communal, caste loyalties and party affiliations. Sometimes, this is visible in the selection of research scholars and other faculty members. In one of the universities a professor and Head of the Department belonging to a particular region of the state was thrown out of the window by the students of another region of the State because it was gathered that he made ad hoc appointments

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of faculty members belonging to his region alone. This incident resulted in the rotation of headship in the university. Yet the Vice-Chancellor is the guiding, unifying, representing, defending and inspiring authority of the university. It is the Vice-Chancellor who is looked for maintaining the conditions of academic freedom and defending the university from external attacks. But sometimes, he may not satisfy the expectastions of the faculty fully due to the financial plight of the university. Consequently the Vice-Chancellor and the faculty look upon each other as irritating causes of their respective troubles. So far as faculty participation in administration is concerned, he, as the chief academic and administrative officer of the university reconciles the conflicts between the highly individualistic men of thought and those of the more organizationally-minded men of action.

Summing Up. The Vice-chancellorship is uniquely important in a university setting. The principal responsibilities of the Vice-Chancellor are all pervading; to represent the general interests of the university as a whole; to be its chief spokesman; to be sensitive to the educational and intellectual needs and mission of the academic community; to maintain resources; create new resources and to allocate these resources to achieve specific educational goals and priorities; to plan for the development of the university and in this area has special responsibility to innovate and initiate and to set standards of integrity to meet the ultimate management responsibility. These responsibilities are comprehensive enough to cover all functions, powers and objects of the university. But these are so vast, so complex and so interrelated that they require for their solution institutional rather than individual efforts. More over the authority possessed by the Vice-Chancellor in these areas of governance is opposed by counterveilling forces. He has, no doubt, the power of approving educational policies as decided by the faculty but he can succeed only by employing the device of consultation and persuation. Again, in deciding questions relating to students' admission and examina-

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tion, he shares responsibility with the faculty though the ultimate responsibility is his, especially when violence erupts on the campus with the concomitant police 'bandobust' due to non-acceptance of the charter of demands from the Students' union asking regularisation of wrong admissions, postponement of examinations and awarding of irregular promotions to their brother students. But his scope for independent decision-making appears to be large in areas of finance, physical facilities and public relations. Yet, even here his decisions are regularly reviewed by the syndics and intermitantly by the senators.

The Vice-Chancellor is appointed by Governor as Chancellor of the university. Though apparently, the Vice-Chancellor in his choice, in actual practice, he is the choice of the Chief Minister of the State. As university affairs do not come under the Governor's discretionary powers, he normally acts on the advice of the Chief Minister though some have acted independently. Hence when strained relationship exist between the Chief Minister and the Governor, the Vice-Chancellor is sandwitched between the two and consequently is always under tensions. Even if both work together smoothly, he cannot escape embarrassement as had happened in the Osmania University in 1965-66 when both the Governor and the Chief Minister were bent upon removing the Vice-Chancellor.

The chairmanship of the Senate accrued by the Vice-Chancellor in the absence of the Chanbcellor is not without implications which have both fair and adverse effects. Its good effect is that the Vice-Chancellor, as chief executive and academic officer, can bring effective coordination of all wings in the university, especially because the senate considers academic, administrative as well as accounts matters. But at the same time it creates adverse effects. In the presence of the Vice-Chancellor free and frank discussion, esp., from the teaching side may not be possible.[4]

The chairmanship of the Vice-Chancellor also creates an anomacus situation, because the chairman of the executive wing also becomes the chairman of the legislative wing.

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If the system of university governance is based on the democratic principle of making administration answerable to the deliberative wing, the chairmanship of the Senate by the Vice-Chancellor suggests an undemocratic principle in the so called democratic governance of the university.

As a member and presiding officer of the Syndicate/ Executive Council, the Vice-Chancellor is wary of it because, consiting of gubernatorial appointees and politicians, it reflects forces beyond his control and with which he must come to terms. They may cajole him, they may bully him; they may cooperate with him; but they can put limits to his leadership. Though an external body studded in universitysetting, it "is a breeding force ever present in spirit, if not in body, frequently exerting influence informally more effectively than by formal resolutions."[5] It is, therefore, necessary for Vice-Chancellor as chairman not to consider the syndics as obstructionists, not to resist their critical involvement in the university affairs, and not to regard them as trouble-makers. Rather, he must continuously consult them, settle differences, if any, amicably, and in fact, use the prominent out of them as sources of information for conveying to him the thinking of their brother syndics so that he may know the power centres in the syndicate.

If the Syndicate affects the Vice-Chancellor, the Vice-Chancellor also affects the Syndicate. He has several advantages in the favour. First of all, his office has great prestige. Secondly, he has immediate access to information by his regular and informed conversation with both academic and administrative officers. Thirdly, it is the Vice-Chancellor who sets up the agenda, convenes the metings and leads the discussion in the syndicate. Thus, he can be selective in emphasis, postpone, or delay any item or make it a fait accompli. Fourthly, he being the chairman, has a casting vote in addition to his own. Fifthly, he controls patronage and favours. Lastly, since the syndics are busy with their own occupations, they are unable to apply full and fresh

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mind while deciding the issues and consequently depend on the Vice-Chancellor.

All said, the Vice-Chancellor has no easy time to pass in the Syndicate. He has to deal with a body which he has not created so he can neither abolish it nor can he rid of it. Therefore, he must have its confidence, establish a cooperative and working relationship with its members. Though he is the authority enjoined by the Act to see that provisions of the Act, Statutes, Ordinances and Regulations are duly observed yet he has to be accommodative and tactful, esp., when crisis decisions are resolved in the Syndicate. The hard-liner may have to succumb to the ill-dated decisions either by accepting it against the conscience or resigning his post. Yet a good Vice-Chancelloer with a bargaining power, tact and integrity may be able to direct and guide it, but, of course, not without cultivating its members. In fact, he keeps them as fully informed as possible by putting them on committees and asking them to do special jobs in the area of their competence.

The ultimate safeguard lies in good sense, good manners, integrity of the Vice-Chancellor and members of the Syndicate, avoidance of vote of confidence and in the degree of mutual confidence. Nevertheless, the problems of relationship between the Vice-Chancellor as educationist and administrator and syndicate as a body responsible for the welfare of the institution is a delicate and unresolved aspect of the management of the univeristy.

The powers and role of the Vice-Chancellor suggests that he should endeavour to provide a sense of purpose and unity to the entire academic community. He should facilitate and not dominate the process of faculty decision-making. He should protect the individual and the department from any temptation to collective tyranny by the faculty as a whole. Further, he must watch to make certain that the best collective judgement of the faculty is carried out in the administrative activity of the academic community. He enjoys the great advantage of combining in his person the role of faculty leader and chief administrative

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officer. The two are not positions of conflict but rather positions of mutual compatibility.

In the realm of student's affairs, the concept of in loco parent is dead; the paternalist status of the Vice-Chancellor is extinct; he is no longer a teacher. Consequently, his contancts with the students are limited to ceremonial and volcanic occassions. Yet, not a day passes when he is not made consicious of students' problems and their power. Students are always insisting on meeting him direct by passing their principals, esp., in a federative university having constitutent colleges of its own.

Perhaps the task of cultivating, developing and expressing the image of the university falls upon the Vice-Chancellor than any one else. As an educational leader and as the chief administrative officer, he is peculiarly suited to represent the university, to epitomise its image. No other individual has so unique an opportunity, so heavy a responsibility.

But the traditional approach of depicting him as scholar among scholars, educational leader, academic innovator, fund raiser and 'saint or satan' depending on the favour he grants or denies, does not seem to be very valid now. He is today rather a care-taker, persuader, interpreter, and mediator. He is the target of competing demands; his office has become a focal point for expressing frustration and discontent. There is little awe in his office left to act as a deterrent. He should reconcile himself to risk taking; he must better equip himself as administrator responding to stresses and strains. He must act as a connector together with reshaper of programmes providing common linkage among all constituents of the university—the faculty, the administration and the students.

Despite these limitations, the Vice-Chancellor is responsible for whatever goes on in the university. If educational standards are deteriorating, he must devote almost all his time; if hostels are not functioning well, he must concern himself primarily with them; if the administration fails, he must shake it up, if finances are short, he must

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raise and obtain funds; if there are serious infractions of discipline leading to violence on the campus, he must subside it; and if there is hostility between faculty and administration, he must reconcile it. All through, he must fight a lonely battle in his own style.[6] Thus, the task is so exacting and the office so hazardous that it has become impossible for one man to fill all roles expected of him satisfactorily and also to deal with so much bearing a direct responsibility for all lapses and in so little a time.

The Vice-Chancellor, therefore, needs help to meet the evergrowing and emerging emergent demands on a bloating university of elephantine proportions. The institution of pro-vice-chancellor may ease the situation.[7] Better still, if there are more than one Pro-Vice-Chancellor, two, three or four in charge of finance and administration, academic and examination, development and construction and student's affairs and hostel admissions. This will help the Vice-Chancellor to devote enough time to educational and organizational reforms. It is part of daily experience that today he spends more time on fiscal problems, selection of personnel, student's affairs and public relations; only residual time is devoted to academic management. Thus, the institution of pro-vice-chancellorship will go a long way in helping the Vice-Chancellor to distribute his time equitably, if not equally, among the various activities of the university. They may be appointed by the Syndicate/Executive Council on the recommendations of the Vice-Chancellor from amongst Deans of faculties or senior Professors. The senior most among them can discharge the functions of the incharge Vice-Chancellor during the temporary absence of the permanent incumbent. But the relationship between them will always be critical. The pro-vice-chancellors appointed may create friction of cooperation; some may toe the line of the vice-chancellor while others may carve out a separate power centre for themselves. This will be a dilemma for the Vice-Chancellor who has to depend on them. However, whatever the number of pro-vice-chancellors and whatever problem they create, basic academic issues, high policy matters and

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fundamental financial scrutiny may remain, as ever, the vital domain of the Vice-Chancellor.

NOTES

1. Higher Education, Report of the Committee under the chairmanship of Lord Robbins, 1961-63, Reprinted 1968, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, para 676, p. 221.
2. This is in consonance with the recommendations of all Commissions and Committees that were unanimous in emphasising that the vice-chancellor should be pre-eminently an academician of repute.
3. Corson, John J.: Governance of Colleges and Universities, Mcgraw Hill Book Company, Inc, New York, 1960, pp. 58-59.
4. Even a professor, though newly appoitned one, was asked to be silent over a controversial issue and when he insisted to have his way, he was privately admonished by his seniors.
5. Stoke, Harold W.: The American College President, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1959, p. 72.
6. Iqbal Narain: "Power Structure in India's University System: Reflections of an Insider," The Indian Journal of Public Administration, July-September, 1986 Vol. XXXII, No. 3, p. 670.
7. Report, Model Act Committee, Ministry of Education, Government of India, 1964 pp. 15-16 and Report, Committee on Governance of Universitiels and Colleges, part I, "Governance of Universities" University Grants Commission, 1971, p. 64.

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15

EDUCATION IN JAMMU & KASHMIR

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1.1. Introduction

Jammu & Kashmir State is a border State of India and sensitive in nature from various aspects. The total population according to 1981 census was 5987000. The estimated total population as on September 30, 1986 was 6804037, out of which 5403741 and 1401296 were rural and urban population respectively. The growth of education and economic development has been disparate in the State. The per capita income of J&K State (Rs. 1759/-) is below the national average (Rs. 1946/-). The literacy percentage according to 1981 census, was 26.7% and as such the deviation from National Average was 9.5%, J&K State stands third from the bottom so far as literacy is concerned. (above Bihar (26.2%) and Rajasthan (24.4%).

An humble effort has been made in the present paper to provide the profile of school education in the State which may serve as a guideline to our educational planners and educational administrators.

The data used in the present paper are based on the Fifth All India Educational Survey-Selected Statistics published by NCERT.

1.2. Schools in J&K State

There were 10688 schools of all types in J&K State, out of which 9445 and 1243 were in rural and urban areas respectively. It means that 88.37% schools were in rural

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areas and 11.63% schools were in urban areas. The mixed type of schools or composite schools are of the common run in the State. There were 7466 total primary schools, 2196 upper primary schools, 846 secondary schools and 180 higher secondary schools in relation to total schools (10688). These schools came to be in terms of percentages 69.95%, 20.45%, 7.92% and 1.68% in primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary schools respectively.

1.2 (a) Schools in Rural Areas. The total numbers of all types of schools in rural areas were 9445. Out of 9445 the different types of schools were 691 Primary, 1806 Upper Primary, 643 Secondary and 84 Higher Secondary. These figures in percentages came to be 64.67% 16.90%, 6.02% and 0.79% for Primary, Upper Primary, Secondary and Higher respectively.

1.2. (b) Schools in Urban Areas. The total numbers of all types of Schools in Urban Areas were 1243. Out of 1243 the different types of schools were: 554 Primary, 390 Upper Primary, 203 Secondary, and 96 Higher Secondary Schools. These figures in percentages came to be 5.18%, 3.65%, 1.90% and 0.90% for Primary, Upper Primary, Secondary, and Higher Secondary Schools respectively.

1.2. (c) Schools by Management. The education in J&K State is free for the permanent residents. The Private Schools are few as compared to Government Schools. There is grant-in-aid system in the State and the State Government encourages private management to establish new educational institutions. There is a mushroom growth of private schools at lower stage and opening of academics and nursery Schools have become fashion.

At the primary stage there were 7466 total primary schools and out of this 7345 schools were Government managed, 19 Schools were private-aided and 72 Schools were private-unaided. In percentages these came to be 98.97%, 0.25% and 0.96% for Government, Private-Aided and Private-Unaided respectvely.

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At the Upper Primary stage there were 2196 total upper primary schools in J&K State and out of this total, there were 2097 Government managed, 27 Schools were private aided and 72 were private un-aided. In percentages these came to be 95.49%, 1.23% and 3.28% for Government, Private Aided and Private Un-aided Schools respectively.

At the Secondary level there were in all 846 schools in the State and out of these there were 749 Government Schools, 62 were private aided and 35 were private un-aided. In percentages these came to be 88.53%, 7.33% and 4.14% for Government, private aided and private un-aided schools respectively.

At the Higher Secondary state there were in all 180 Schools in J&K State and out of this 160 Schools were Government schools, 11 Higher Secondary Schools were private aided and 9 were private un-aided. In percentages these figures came to be 88.89% 6.11% and 5.0% for Government, private aided and private un-aided respectively.

1.2. (d) Percentage Increase in Schools. There was 11.28 percent increase in the number of schools in 1986 over 1978 at the primary stage. There was 10.35 percent increase at upper primary schools. There was 25.71 percent increase at Secondary Schools and 91. 49 percent increase has been observed at the Higher Secondary stage.

1.3. Schools According to Types of Buildings.

Primary. There were 7466 primary schools in all in J&K State and out of which 2253 (30.18%) were housed in pacca building; 1687 (22.60%) were housed in partly pacca building; 3160 (42.33%) primary schools were run in Kuchha building; 103 (1.38%), 17 (0.23%) and 246 (3.29%) primary schools were run in thatched huts, tents and open spaces respectively.

Upper Primary Schools. There were 2196 upper primary schools in J&K State and out of which 929 (42.30%), 678 (30.87%), 546 (24.86%), 6 (0.27%) and 37 (1.68%) were housed in pacca building, partly pacca building, Kuchha

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building, thatched huts and, open space respectively.

1.4. Schools According to Instructional Rooms

Primary Schools. There were 276 primary schools (3.70 per cent) which had no instructional rooms. There were 3754 primary schools (50.28 percent) having only one instructional room. There were 2230 primary schools (29.87 percent), 701 primary schools (9.39 percent), 304 primary schools (4.07 percent), 141 primary schools (1.89 percent) and 60 primary schools (0.80 percent) were two, three, four, five and more than five instructional rooms respectively.

Upper Primary Schools. There were 2196 upper primary schools in J&K State out of which 41 Schools (1.87%), 232 Schools (10.56%), 671 Schools (30.56%), 561 Schools (25.55%) 393 Schools (17.90%) and 198 Schools (9.02%) were having no instructional rooms, 1-2 instructional rooms, 3-4 instructional rooms, 5-6 instructional rooms, 7-8 instructional rooms and more than 8 instructional rooms respectively.

The architectural aspect and the educational need at the time of constructing the school building for the primary and upper primary schools had not been kept in view by the educational planners and administrators. More than 50 percent primary schools were having one instructional rooms and about 43 percent upper primary schools were having 1-2 and 3-4 instructional rooms.

1.5. Availability of Playground Facility in Schools

Primary Schools. There were 3334 primary schools having playground facility and there were 1673 primary schools were having facility of playground in usable condition.

Secondary Schools. There were 656 Secondary Schools where playground facility was available and 474 Secondary Schools were such where playground facility in usable condition was available.

Higher Secondary Schools. There were 161 Higher Secondary Schools where playground facilities were avail-

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able and 128 Higher Secondary Schools were such where playground facility in usable condition was available.

1.6. Primary and Upper Primary Schools having Various Ancillary Facilities:

Pramary Schools. There were 2083 primary schools (27.90%) where drinking water facility was available. There were 427 primary schools (65.72%) where urinal facility was available.

There were 132 (1.77%) primary schools which had separate urinal for girls. There were only 144 (1.93%) primary schools which had lavatory facility and 38 (0.51%) primary schools were such which had separate lavatory for girls.

Upper Primary Schools. The drinking water facility was available to 805 (36.66%) Upper Primary schools. The Urinal facility was available in 384 (17.49%) schools only and seperate urinals for girls were available in 164 (7.47%) upper primary schools. The lavatory facility was available to 161 (7.33%) Upper primary schools and seperate lavatory for girls was available in 55 schools (2.50%).

1.7. Enrolment

1.7. (a) Enrolment in Classes-I-V. The enrolement in classes I-V was 642095 in J&K State including 517801 (80.63%) and 124294 (19.36%) in rural and urban areas respectively. The enrolment of girls and boys was 255218 (39.7%) and 386877 (60.3%) respectively. The enrolment of girls in rural and urban areas in classes I-V was 195039 (76.42%) and 60179 (23.58%) respectively whereas the enrolment of boys in rural and urban areas in classes I-V is 322762 (83.43%) and 64115 (16.57%) respectively.

The enrolment of girls in classes I-V is on the declining side as the girls percentages from classes I to V were 41.94%, 40.03%, 39.30%, 38.30% and 38.0% respectively whereas the enrolment of boys in classes I-V was on the increasing side as the boys percentages from classes I to V were 58.06%, 59.90%, 60.60% 61.70% and 62.10% respectively.

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1.7 (b) Enrolment in Classes VI-VIII. The enrolment in J&K State in classes VI-VIII was 270680 including 198301 (73.26%) and 72379 (26.73%) in rural and urban areas respectively. The toal enrolemtn in J&K State in Classes I-VIII was 912775 including 716102 (78.45%) and 196673 (21.55%) in rural and urban areas respectively. The enrolment of girls in urban areas from Cllasses VI to VIII has been on increasing side as the percentages of enrolment have been 32.84%, 35.87% and 42.80% respectively, but in case of the enrolment of rural girls it has been on decreasing side for Classes VI to VIII as the percentages have come to be 69.16%, 64.13% and 57.20% respectively. The enrolment of rural boys in classes VI to VIII has been on decreasing side as the percentages have come to be 73.19%, 76.89% and 76.75% respectively.

1.7 (c) Enrolment in Classes IX-XII. The enrolment in Classes IX-XII was 143537 in Jammu and Kashmir State including 76080 (53.00%) and 67457 (47.58%) in rural and urban areas respectively. The total enrolment of girls and boys in IX-XII Classes was 46488 (32.39%) and 97049 (67.61%) respectively. The enrolment of girls in rural and urban areas in classes IX-XII was 43.20% and 56.80% respepctively, whereas the enrolment of boys in rural and urban areas was 57.70% and 42.30% respectively.

1.7. (d) Percentage Increase of Enrolement in 1986 Over 1978. In case of primary, upper primary and High/ Higher Secondary state the percentage of increase came to be 35.58%, 80.25% and 98.58% respectively.

1.7. (e) Scheduled Caste Enrolment in J&K State At Various Stages of Education. The percentage of Scheduled caste in total population according to 1981 census was 8.31 percent. The enrolment of scheduled caste was 55793 in classes I-V, 22723 in classes VI-VIII, 7639 in claasses IX-X and 1420 in classes XI-XII which came to be in percentages for classes I-V, VI-VIII, IX-X and XI-XII as 6.69%, 8.39%, 7.18% and 3.82% of the corresponding total enrolment respectively. The enrolment of Scheduled Caste girls from I-V, VI-VIII, IX-X and XI-XII came to be 22630 (40.56%),

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7966 (35.06%), 2281 (29.86%) and 347 (24.44%) respectively which is definitely on the decreasing side whereas the enrolement of scheduled caste boys came to be for primary, upper primary, high school and higher secondary as 33153 (59.44%) 14757 (64.94%), 5358 (70.14%) and 1073 (75.56%) respectively which is on the increasing side.

1.7. (f) Gross Enrolment Ratio. The Gross Enrolment Ratio for classes I-V (6-11 years) was 79.96%) in 1986 as against 66.59% in 1978. These ratios for classes VI-VIII (11-14 years) was 56.62% as against 38.37% in 1978. These ratios for boys and girls were 69.85 and 41.72 respectively.

1.8. Various Incentives Schemes in Primary and Upper Primary Schools in J&K State.

The facility of mid-day meals was provided in 88 primary schools and 1 pupper primary schools. The beneficiaries out of mid-day meals were 385 and 3 at primary and upper primary schools respectively. Dr. Farooq Abdullah, Chief Minister of J&K State, announced in the State Legislative Assembly that mid-day meals would be provided to all students at primary stage and the strategy to implement the policy is under active consideration of the State Government.

The facility of free uniforms was provided in 3592 and 1172 primary and upper primary schools respectively and the beneficiaries were 17913 and 10624 at primary and upper primary schools respectively. The incentive of free text-books was provided to 2859 and 1046 primary and upper primary schools and the beneficiaries for the two levels of education (primary and upper primary schools) came to be 17109 and 10849 respectively.

1.9. Higher Secondary Schools according to Courses offered

The traditional type of higher secondary schools offering arts, science and commerce course were more and the State Govt. did not attach any importance to agriculture, technical, home-Science and Computer Science courses. So

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far as Vocational courses are concerned at +2 stage in J&K State there is not even a single institution whcih ofers computer courses.

1.10. Number in Schools having Teachers Exclusively for Physical Education.

Physical education receives very little support from J&K State. There were 805 educational institutions where teachers for physical education had been provided. Out of this the teachers of physical education were 3,51,579 and 172 at primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary schools respectively. The modern concept of Education is all-round development of child's innate power and as such the very purpose of imparting education in J&K State is defeated.

1.11. Teachers in J&K State.

There were 45976 teachers in all schools and out of this 19538 (42.50%) were in primary schools, 14324 (31.15%) in upper primary schools, 9158 (19.92%) in Secondary Schools, and 2956 (6.43%) in Higher SEcondary Schools. 38.07% teachers in primary schools, 34.26% teachers in upper primary schools, 35.38% teachers in higher secondary schools were women teachers. The corresponding percentages for scheduled caste teachers were 4.24%, 2.80%, 2.30% and 2.22% respectively. 78.29% teachers in primary schools, 72.33% teachers in upper primary schools, 72.68% teachers in secondary schools and 78.18% teachers in higher secondary schools were trained.

The pupil-teacher ratios for the primary stage was 33, for the upper primary stage was 19, for the Secondary stage was 12 and for the higher secondary stage was 13. All these ratios are less than the national ratios which were 44, 29, 21 and 15 for primary, upper primary, secondary and higher secondary stages respectively.

1.12. Non-Formal Education.

There were 1688 and 151 primary level centres of non-formal education in rural and urban areas in J&K State.

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There was no upper primary level non-formal centre neither in rural nor in urban areas in the State. The enrolments in rural areas for boys and girls in non-formal centres were 16134 (45.95%) and 18076 (54.05%) respectively whereas the enrolment in urban areas in non-formal centres for boys and girls were 1214 (36.50%) and 2112 (63.50%) respectively in Jammu and Kashmir State.

Epilogue

It has been rightly pointed out in the Programme of Action issued by Central Govt. in August 1986, "Unless the system of education works properly at all stages of education, in all parts of the country the ambitions progress of educational reforms envisaged in NPE will come to a naught." Jammu and Kashmir State has reached a stage in its development in general and in the field of education in particular where serious thought should be given to making the system work.

The Constitution of Jammu and Kashmir provides for free education to all the permanent residents of State. Even though J&K Govt. spends more on education than National Average but it is still educationally backward. The per capita expenditure on education in J&K State under Plan expenditure is Rs. 43.36 and under Non-Plan expenditure is 98.78. The total expenditure (*i.e.*, per capita expenditure on education) comes to Rs. 145.14. This fact speaks about the good intentions of the State Government but the educational attainment of the State in terms of literacy, enrolment; etc. is poor. The State Government should see the maximum utilizaiton of the available resources. It seems that there are divergences between the ideal and the real at the conceptual level of educational planning in J&K State as well as implementation strategies need revamping.

One must also recognise that the success of educational plan does not depend merely upon the efficiency with which the educational plan is developed, it also depends upon how effectively other complementary decisions are introduced simultaneously. It would not be out of place to

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mention here about the new-organizational set-up of Department of Education, Govt. of J&K State. The proposal for new-re-organization of the Education Department was approved vide Cabinet decision No. 53 dated February 9, 1987 and as such came into existence vide Govt. order No. 203 Edu. of 1987 dated February 11, 1987. Much water has flown since then but the new re-organizational structure has not yet been fully implemented. Half-hearted efforts would never bring fruitful results.

A few educational areas whcih should attract the attention of those who are interested in bringing J&K State on the map of India so far as educational development is concerned are: Recruitment Policy; Transfer Policy; Adminsitration and Supervision Policy; Community Involvment; Redressal of Grievances; Teachers Training Programmes (Pre-Service and In-service); Institutional Evaluation; Autonomy Vs. Accountability; Monitoring and Evaluation; Welfare Schemes; Micro-level Educational Planning.

It is an established fact that there are many factors which influence the system of education in a country or State. Out of these factors, political system plays the crucial role in the desired quality and quantity of education. One should never draw such conclusion that it is either the political system which is to be blamed or the educational system itself. Change in the educational system cannot be brought about either by the educational system or by the political system. Simultaneous changes have to be brought about in the other sectors of the society as well.

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16

ACTIVATING TEACHERS FOR BETTER PERFORMANCE

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There are organisational goals and individuals goals. That management is best which works for the attainment of both the two goals - one for its employees and the other for the organisation. Both these two goals can be achieved through stimulating employees towards productive performance. This stimulation is what is known as activating process. Young Paul in his book 'Motivation and Emotion' calls it a process of arousing actions sustaining the activity in progress and regulating the pattern of activity. It attracts and initiates action and also serves as a factor in the continuation of activity until objectives have been attained.

Clearnece Francis states that activating techniques are utilised to stimulate employees growth. In this connection it will be interesting to state his observations which read as follows —

> "You can buy a man's time; you can buy a man's physical presence at a given place; you can even buy a measured number of skilled muscular motions per hour or day; but you cannot buy enthusiasm. You can not buy initiatve; you cannot buy loyality; you cannot buy devotion of hearts, minds and souls. You have to earn these things."

Universal Theory of Motivation :

This theory was developed by Abraham Maslow in 1943. It explains human behaviour in a more dynamic and

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realistic manner and is primarily based upon people's inner states as a basis for motivation and the environment conditions do not play any role. Maslow postulates five basic needs arranged into successive levels. They are :

1. Physiological needs,
2. Safety needs,
3. Social needs,
4. Esteem needs,
5. Self-Actualization needs

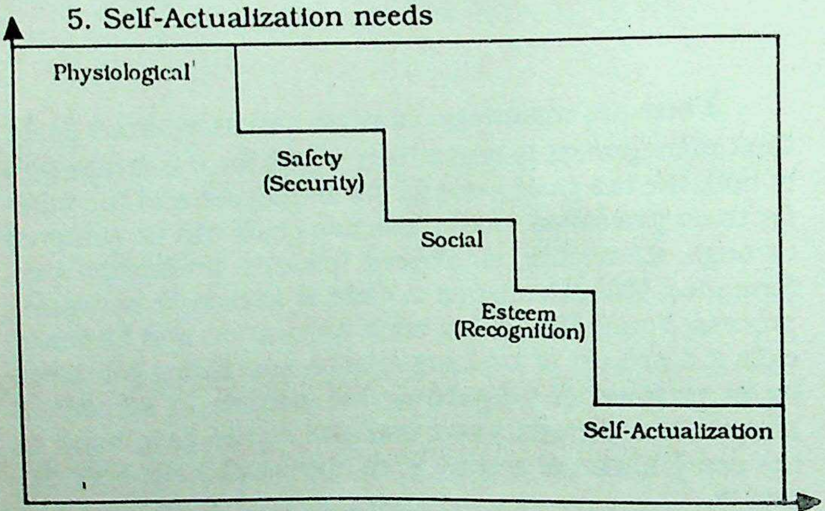

Fig. Maslow's Need Based Motivation

Physiological needs include the basic needs for food, water, shelter and sex. Safety needs include protection from threats of violence, economic and job security, life and medical insurance and other protective measures. Social needs are needs for love, friendship and social interaction where we are understood, respected and wanted. Esteem needs refer to feeling of self-worth and self-confidence in the individual. It is an urge for achievement, prestige, status and power which result in self-confidence, independence, status, reputation and prestige. Self-actualization needs refer to the level when a person seeks challenging work and assignments that allow for creativity and opportunities for personal growth and advancement.

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Two-Factor Theory of Motivation :

This theory of motivation has been put forth by Herzberg. The two factors are :-

i) Those factors that prevent dis-satisfaction ___ Hygience factors.

ii) These factors that have positive effect on job satisfaction ___ motivating factors.

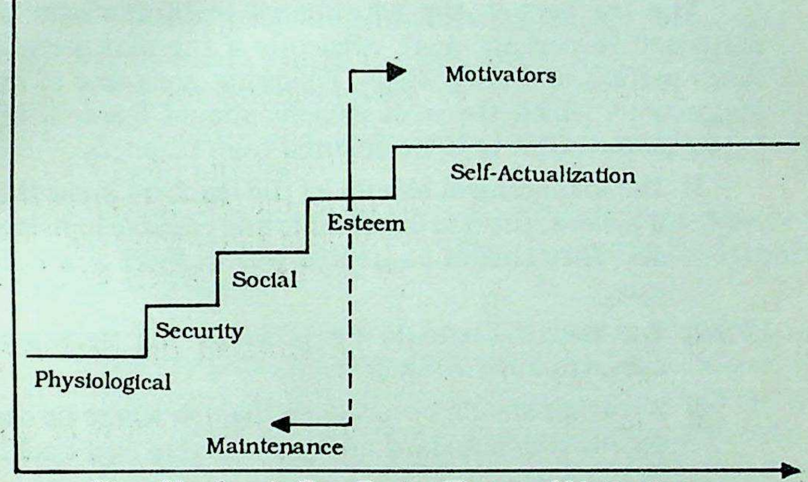

Fig. : Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation

The hygience factors do not motivate people but simply prevent dis-satisfaction and maintain status que. Some of the hygiene factors are :-

a) Wages, salary and other types of employee benefits.

b) Company policies and administration rules that govern the working environment.

c) Interpersonal relations with peers and subordinates.

d) Working conditions and job security.

e) Supervisor's technical competence as well as the quality of his supervision.

Motivation factors have a positive influence, overall satisfaction, efficiency and higher productivity. Some of these factors are :-

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a) The job itself
b) Recognition
c) Achievement
d) Responsibility
e) Growth and advancement

What should management do to Activate Teachers :

The teachers in the educational institutionscan be motivated to perform more efficiently if the management takes certain activating steps. Following are some of the suggestions which the management should follow if the better performance is to be ensured from teachers :-

1) The management should let the teachers know that it believes them to be valuable and capable individuals. They should be treated with respect and honesty.
2) The teachers should be provided the necessary infrastructure for their work.
3) A teacher should be assigned that job where he can set his own standard and get concrete feed-back.
4) The salary and the working conditions of teachers should not build dis-satisfactories into the job.
5) The management should put before the teachers the objective of the organisation and should seek their cooperation in the achievement of the same.
6) The teachers should be made known through feed-back, how they are doing.
7) Reinforcement incentives and job enrichment etc. should be utilised.
8) Teachers should be sent for Talent Promotion at the Centres of Excellence within and outside the country.
9) Refresher and re-orientation courses should be frequently arranged for the teachers.
10) Regular meetings of teachers in national and inter-

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national workshops and seminars should be encouraged.

11) The participation of the teachers in national and inter-national workshops and seminars should be encouraged.

12) Sense of belonging should be created in the minds of the teachers.

13) Proper avenues of promotions should be created.

14) Teachers should not be made to work at the mercy of the establishment.

15) Teachers should be encouraged to publish books and articles.

However, it is worthnoting what Ernest Dale observed in his book 'Management ____ Theory and Practice! which reads as follows :-

> "For some, probably for a great many, a chance to assume greater responsibility will provide an impetus, but even among these too much responsibility too soon may create apprehensions unless the manager makes it plain that he stands ready to provide help whenever they need it. Others may be motivated by a change to learn higher ___ paying jobs, even though they may not be instrinsically more interesting than the ones they already hold. Still others may be willing to go along in the monotonous affair in the familiar rut, provided they can earn a decent living and have decent working conditions and congenial associates."

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SECTION - III

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17

INTER-GOVERNMENT FISCAL RELATIONS IN INDIA

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The subject of Inter-government fiscal relations in India, commonly known as Centre-state financial relations, has been a theme of topical interest as well as an area of great concern. Finance being the necessary wherewithal of socio-economic development, any unsatisfactory arrangement regarding the distribution of funds between the Centre and States in any country is bound to result in frictions and conflict between the Centre and the States as also cause jealousy among the states and thus harm national harmony. In fact many of the current political problems and agitations in India - the Jharkhand movement, the Assam problem and even the Punjab problem - are believed to have their roots in economic problems such as the lack of economic development in certain regions and lack of employment opportunities in others.

As is well known, India has a federal set-up of Government, where we have a Central Government on the one hand and the state Governments on the other. In every Federation - U.S.A., Australia and Canada being the leading examples - the functions and the powers of the Central and the State Governments are well defined and divided. Generally the guiding principle in this regard is that the functions of general interest or of national importance - such as defence - are assigned to the Central Government whereas the functions of regional or local importance such as water supply - are assigned to the States. Further, functions of common interest - such as price control - are assigned to

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both. Since the accomplishment of every function necessitates funds, thus in every federation the financial resources are also divided between the Centre and the States. This is necessary because if a government is asked to perform certain functions without the power or the responsibility of raising funds, either it will not be able to get the necessary resources or it may overspend leading to financial indiscipline and irregularities. Moreover, if the sources of funds are not clearly divided but both the Central and the State governments are allowed to raise funds from the same heads there will occur overlapping and double taxation causing avoidable hardship to the concerned people.

Indian Constitution provides for an elaborate division of functions between the Union and the States, based on a three-fold scheme. The Union List consists of 97 subjects, the state list consists of 66 subjects and the concurrent list involves 44 subjects. The Union list includes such matters as defence, foreign affairs, broadcasting, posts and telegraphs, currency and coinage, foreign trade, banking etc. The concurrent list includes such spheres as economic planning, education, labour welfare, social security, criminal law and prices control.

The Indian Constitution also clearly specifies the financial powers of the Union and the States. Thus taxes have been categorised into the following five groups :

1. Exclusively Union Taxes i.e. taxes levied and collected by the Central Government and also appropriated by it e.g. corporation tax, custom duties, taxes on transactions in stock exchanges, terminal taxes on goods or passengers carried by railway, sea or air, etc.
2. Exclusively State Taxes i.e. taxes levied and collected by the State Governments and also appropriated by them e.g. land revenue, sales tax, taxes on agricultural income, excise duties on liqours, opium and other marcotics and drugs, taxes on gambling and entertainment, taxes on road vehicals, tolls etc.
3. Taxes levied by the Centre but collected and appro-

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priated by the States e.g. stamp duties, duties on medical and toilet preparations etc.

4. Taxes levied and collected by the Centre but assigned to the States within which they are levied e.g. taxes on railway fares, succession and estate duties on property other than agricultural land.
5. Taxes levied and collected by the Central Government but amount shared between the Union Government and the State Governments e.g. income tax and the Union excise duty.

From the above it follows that the Indian Constitution not only clearly specifies the allocation of taxes between the Centre and the states but also provides an important element of transfer of financial resources from the Centre to the states in the form of divisible or shared taxes, namely the income tax and the Union excise duties. The distribution of divisible taxes between the Centre and the States and also among the various states is determined by a high power body, provided for by the Constitution itself, called the Finance Commission. It is a non-political expert body appointed by the President of India after every five years. It consists of one Chairman and four other members whose qualifications are prescribed by the parliament. Presently the prescribed qualifications are; an expert connected with Central finances, an economist of repute, an expert connected with the State finances and a lawyer of the status of a High Court Judge. The constitution provides that it shall be the duty of the Finance Commission to make recommendations with regard to the distribution between the Union and the States of the not proceeds of the divisible taxes and also the allocation of proceeds among the states. The Commission is also duty bound to recommend the principles which should govern the grants-in-aid from the Centre to the States. It is obvious that the Finance Commission is supposed to be arbiter for fiscal transfers from the Centre to the states and sufficient care is to be taken about its composition and the standing of its members so that its awards are acceptable. Starting with the appointment of the

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First Finance Commission in December 1951, the president of India has so far appointed ten Finance Commissions, the last of these having been appointed recently.

The founding fathers of the Indian Constitution were able to anticipate that despite the clear-cut distribution of financial powers between the Centre and the states there could be a problem of imbalance in the financial requirments and the financial powers of the state governments. Therefore, as a remedy they have also provided in the constitution for another element of financial adjustment namely grants-in-aid from the Centre to the States. As a matter of fact this element of transfer has over the period overtaken in importance the element of shared-taxes. The grants-in-aid to the State Governments are of two types. One type of grants is covered by Article 275 of the Constitution. These are the grants to be given to the States for such purposes as providing essential services like education, health, water-supply, transport, slum clearance, development schemes with respect to scheduled tribes and areas etc. These grants are also distributed among the states on the recommendations of the Finance Commission. However, the Indian Constitution also provides for another type of grants under Articles 282. These grants can be for any purpose to promote planned economic development. These are thus called plan-grants. Interestingly, the distribution of plan grants is not within the purview of the Finance Commission but of Planning Commission, a body which has no Constitutional basis but has been brought into existence by a law of parliament. Further, the non-plan grants and the plan grants differ not only in respect of the authorities determining their distribution and the Articles of the Constitution providing for these grants but also in the basic fact that the non-plan grants under Article 275 are unconditional whereas the plan grants under Article 282 are generally diseretionary and conditional i.e. linked with certain specified objectives and capable of revision according to performance of the receiving states. It may be pointed out that the framers of the Constitution had assumed that

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the Finance Commission would be the main instrument for determining the grants under Article 275 and that the discretionnary provision under Article 282 would be used only for special emergencies like flood and famine. But on account of the increased emphasis on planned development the above assumption has broken down and the grants under Article 282 determined by the Planning Commission have overshadowed the grants determined by the Finance Commission.

There is one more element of financial adjustment between the Centre and the States in India. It is the loans from the Centre to the States, as distinguished from the grants. According to the Indian Constitution the Central Government has complete control over the market borrowing by the State governments. The States can borrow only within the "territory of India" and that also in consultation with the Central Government. But there is no such restriction on the borrowing power of the Central Government. This was perhaps considered desirable to avoid inter-governmental competition in the money market and also to prevent the extravagant State Governments from borrowing and spending indiscriminately. However, since states require larger capital outlays for their planned development, they have been allowed to get the loans from the Central Government through the agency of the planning Commission. We may thus say that the Indian Constitution, with a view to promote uniformity in living standards and reduce regional disparities in socio-economic development, provides for three broad categories of fiscal transfers from the Centre to the States. These are (a) shared taxes, (b) grants-in-aid and (c) the loans. Further, that there are two authorities that determine the entitlements of the States - the Finance Commission and the Planning Commission whereas the `shared taxes' are the exclusive domain of the Finance Commission, and the `loans' that of the Planning Commission, the grants-in-aid is a common field, the Finance Commission distributing the non-plan grants and the Planning Commission distributing the plan grants.

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However, the State Governments in India have not been satisfied with the constitutional provisions regarding the distribution of resources nor with the transfer mechanism. The main grievances and complaints of the States, expressed particularly by the non-congress state governments, are as follows :

1. it is said that whereas the main responsibility of developing the major sectors of the economy like agriculture and industry is shouldered by the States, they have been assigned the taxes which are relatively less productive and the Central Government has been allocated the more productive and elastic taxes. It is alleged that such a distribution of taxes has resulted into inadequacy of funds for the States. Accordingly the State Governments demand a review and reordering of the Constitutional provisions.
2. It is pointed out that income-tax which is shareable with the States has been bifurcated, by a law of parliament passed in 1959, into income-tax proper and corporation tax (tax paid by business companies) and that the proceeds from the corporation tax are not shared by the Centre with the States. This has obviously reduced the divisible pool. A related complaint has been that the Centre has been levying a surcharge on income tax and the proceeds from this are also not shared with the State governments. Hence the States have been demanding that the proceeds from both the corporation tax and the surcharge on income tax be shared with the states.
3. It is said that the Central Government has been given unlimited borrowing power whereas the State Governments have been denied this power. This has considerably increased states dependence on the Centre. The States thus demand that they be given as much borowing power as the Centre.
4. It is said that the plan grants sanctioned by the Planning Commission being conditional in nature

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restrict the freedom of the State Governments to use these funds as they deem proper. Since there are differences in the natural endowments and the levels of development of the States, the developmental measures cannot be identical and have to vary. Hence no conditions should be attached with the grants and the State Governments should be authorised to decide their use. An allied complaint with regard to the plan grants has been that the Centre has been discriminating among the States on political grounds i.e. giving relatively less grants to the States with non-congress governments.

We may thus conclude that despite explicit constitutional provisions, the field of Centre-State financial relations in India has not been quiet. The Centre and the States do not see eye to eye on various aspects of this relationship. Since such potential conflict can harm national integration, a thorough revision of the whole arrangement is called for.

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18

INTUITION AND REASON

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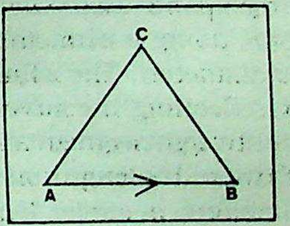
Intuition and Reason are the two faculties by virtue of which Prophets, Sages, Artists and Men of Science have tried to comprehend and interpret Truth. Intuition has also been called the Divine Reason or the sixth sense. To use a simile, intuition is like a flash of lighting and reason is like a steady illumination. Intuition has its great triumphs in the works of artists and a combination of intuition and reason manifests itself in the discoveries and inventions of men of science. I shall confine myself mostly to the realm of Mathematics which furnishes the best examples of the tripumphs and failures of intuition and reason.

It is a fact that intuition guides all animals correctly to follow the straight path from a point A to a point B. That is if we have to go from the point A to a point B we always follow (unless we are drunk !) the path from A to B marked by the arrow head and we do not go from A to C and then from C to B. Most men and all animals do not know the reason for this.



There is a deep theorm known as the triangle inequality which states that A B is less then A C plus C B. In other words the import of this theorm is inbuilt in our system. Again when we face danger or feel very cold we at once turn ourselves in to a sphere like thing. We intuitively apply one

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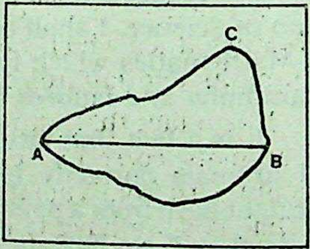
of the deepest theorems in the whole range of mathematics known as the isoperimetric theorm (The three dimensional case). It states that of all solids with a given volume, the sphere has the least surface area. When in danger, we want to decrease our surface area as much as possible and consequently we try to look like a sphere. Again most men and all animals do not know this theorm. All the same we make use of it instinctively and so this theorm or its import is inbuilt in our system. This gem of a theorem has a long and fascinating history. The two dimensional form of this theorem states that of all simple closed curves with a given length the circle has the largest area. Suppose we have a place of wire or a given length. We can join its two ends and form (infinitely many) simple closed curves having different areas. Which curve encloses maximum area ? Legend has it that Dido, a princess, was given a cow-hide and she could have a piece of land having the same area as that of the cow-hide. Dido very cleverly turned the hide into a thin rope of considerable length. Imagine a straight seashore A B. The proble is this, how to place the rope on the shore with the straight seashore A B on one side so as to enclose the largest land area ? Dido placed the rope along a semi-circle with A B as diameter. The solution is given by reflecting the curve A C B in the straight segment A B. This leads to a simple closed curve of twice the length of the rope and the required curve is, therefore, a circle. I always make it a point to ask my students at a certain time the question about the piece of wire. Almost always they give the correct answer *i.e.*, the circle. They certainly do not have the slightest idea of the theorem or its proof which is difficult. In fact it took mankind more then two thousand years to arrive at the rigorous proof of this theorm. Weirestrass and his student Schwarz proved the two dimensional and the three dimensional form



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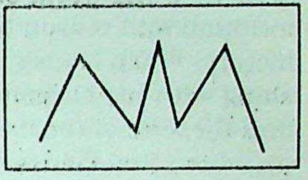
of this theorem respectively. We shall discuss another attempted proof by Jakob Steiner later on. It seems that perception of some kind of order is inbuilt in us.

In spite of all this situations arise in mathematics where our intuition simply fails. I discuss some famous examples of the failure of intuition. I suggest to the uninitiated to be somewhat indulgent and simply follow me. Let as look at the accompaning graph. It has sharp corners at a number of points where the graph is not smooth. Our intuition tells us that the graph is continuous. So we have a continuous graph which is not smooth at a number of points. Can it happen that the graph of a continuous function is nowhere smooth ? Our intuition can not grapple with this delicate situation. Weirestress produced a function which is everywhere continuous and nowhere differentiable *i.e.,* nowhere smooth. This function came as a shock to the intuitionalists. The construction of such a function and the proof that it has the desired property is a triumph of reason. Intuition is a private affair but reason can be shared and thus it becomes our common heritage. Let us discuss another example of the failure of intuition. Suppose we have a segment A B of unit length. We want to give it a full turn *i.e.,* to turn it through an angle of 360^0. What is the minimum swept area ? A circle of radius one seems to be the answer. What is really astonishing is that Besicovitch proved that there is a closed curve having the desired property which encloses as small an area as we please. Certainly, our intuition can not accept this answer but all the same we have to suspend our disbelief willingly because the demonstration is thoroughly rigorous. Steiner's proof of the isoperemetric theorem is remarkable for its beauty and ingenuity but it had a loophole. Intuition seems to have assured Steiner that the solution to the problem exists. But a contemporary mathematician Dirichelet demanded that he must also prove the existence



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of the solution. This is a technical point and may be accepted as such.

Archimedes, Newton and Gauss, the three towering gaiants in the world of mathematics, were gifted with both intuition and reason to a degree unknown in the annals of history. When Gauss was about six years old he was asked along with his classmates on his first day in the school to find the sum of the first one hundred positive integers. It is on record that Gauss startled his teacher by producing the sum 5050 almost instantly. Between the age of eighteen and twenty four he solved three outstanding problems which had baffled mathematicians including the great Euler.

The isoperimetric Theorem tells us that symmetry and optimum behaviour go hand in hand. Let us recall the profound line of Keats "Truth is Beauty, Beauty Truth". To recall another brilliant example of poetic intuition I quote from Ghalib.

مری تعمیر میں مضمر ہے اک صورت خرابی کی　　ہیولیٰ برقِ خرمن کا ہے خونِ گرم دہقاں کا

وفورِ اشک نے کاشانہ کا کیا یہ رنگ　　کہ ہو گئے مرے دیوار و در، در و دیوار

In the first verse Ghalib is clearly intuitively conscious of the law "Heat is a form of motion". In the second verse Ghalib describes the total destruction wrought by flood by a superb use of the reflection principle. در و دیوار is the mirrior image of دیوار و در Many a written page will not convey the devastation in such a telling manner.

The Indian Ramanugem has been described as a 'mdan who knew infinity". He could come out, as if at will, with remarkable identies, sum of very complicated and unusual convergent series, properties of natural numbers mostly by virtue of his intuition. The surprising thing about him is that most often he could not explain or provide a proof of his annunced results. Littlewood, the leading Cambridge mathematicician remarked that every positive integer is a personal friend of Ramanujam one of his celebrated conjec-

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tures has been settled recently by P. Deligne who was awarded a Fields Medal for his profound work.

Now let us turn to reason. Without doubt the best thing to start with is Euclid's immortal Elements. Euclid starts with what are called the underfined terms like point, straight line, plane etc. (to this list we may add the modern term set). Then come axioms and postulates which are the rules of the game (hence mathematics is also a game). These axioms and postulates must be finite in number and logically independent of one anotehr. Axioms and postulates are a good example of the end justifying the menas. For example let us recall the famous parallel postulate i.e., through an external point there is one and only line which is parallel to a given line. Euclid uses it to prove the angle-sum property of a plane traingle. Mathematicians suspected this postulate almost from the start, but all the same no mathematician has been able to prove the angle sum property of a triangle without this postulate or one of its various forms. Thus a mathematical truth is relative to the body of the axioms and postulates. The question arises "Why do we need a proof ? Let us recall the celebrated theorem of Pythagoras which states that the square on the hypotenuse of a right angled triangle is equal in area to the sum of the squares on the other two sides. First of all the number of right angled triangled is infinite. If it were finite we could verify the result for all in a finite time and the job would be completed. Moreover a triangle is not something which can be drawn on a sheet of paper and the accuracy of measurement is another factor to contend with. The proof given by Euclid applies to all right angled triangled and is not time bound (There are more than 370 proofs of this theorem). Let us take another example. The prime numbers 2, 3, 5, 7, ... are known to most of us. How many primes are there ? Euclid proves that they are infinite. Hence counting them will not do. Here is Euclid's proof probably the most celebrated proof (for its simplicity and elegance) in Mathematics. If possible let the primes be finite say p^1, P^2 ......p_n. Consider

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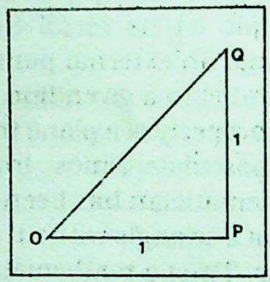
The positive integer $p_1p_2 \dots p_n + 1$.

It is either a new prime number of else has a prime factor greater than any $p_1, p_2 \dots p_n$. Hence a contradiction This is magic of the highest order. A moral grappeling with the infinite and owerpowering it.

Let us take one more example of power of reason. It everyday life positive integers and factions suffice. We can think of a group of twelve people or two-thirds of a leaf of bread and so on. Now the questions: do there exist numbers which are not fractions or in other words, do there exist numbers which are not rational ? Our intuition can not supply the answer. Let us recall the theorem of Pythagoras. Take an isoseeles right angle triangle with equal sides of one unit *i.e.*, OP = PQ = 1 then $PO^2 + PQ^2 = OQ^2$ or $OQ^2 = 2$.



Let X be the measure of OQ so that $X^2 = 2$. Is the number X rational ? The answer turns out to be an emphatic no The proof is simple and can be condensed in one line. I expand it for the sake of explanation. Let us suppose that *2 is a fraction *i.e.*, 2 = p/q where p and q are positive integrera with only 1 as a common factor (if they have a common factor other than 1 we can strike it out). The we get

$p^2 = 2q^2$

Hence p^2 is even. What about p ? p could be even or odd. If p is odd then p = 2m - 1, m = 1, 2, ... and we have

p^2 $4m^2$ -4m = even + 1 = odd.

Thus the square of ever odd number is odd. It follows that if p^2 is even p can not be odd. We, therefore, conclude that if p^2 is even then p is even say p = 2k, k some positive integer. This gives $2q^2 = 4k^2$ *i.e.*, $q^2 = 2k^2$, which in turn gives q^2 and hence q is even say q = 2k, kg some positive integer. Thus p and q have at least 2 as a common factor contrary to our supposition. Hence *2 is not rational. Why do we need

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an axiom or a potulate ? Let us leave the world of Mathematics for a moment and talk of an everyday experience. Men die; yet we can not say that Man is mortal is a mathematical theorem because we have not proved it or because we can not prove it. All evidence supports it but so what. Now if we take "Man is mortal" as on axiom we can prove that any man say Mr. A is mortal. But it still does not follow that a cow is mortal. A better axiom will be "all living beings are mortal". It will follow that any man or any cow is mortal.

A rigorous prof of a theorem is a triumph of human reason. There are great simple and short proofs and there are great difficult and long proofs. When mathematicians Challenged the parallel postulate a new geometry was horn. It is called non-Euclidean Geometry and there are a number of such geometries. Thus Reason is relative. Maulana Rumi has said.

پائے استدلالیاں چوبیں بود

i.e., Logician's feet are made of wood. Kurt Godel demonstrated that in any formal system of logic inconsistency is inherent and what is worse it can not be remedied. P.J. Cohn proved that the celebrated continuum hypothesis can neither be proved nor disproved within the framework of the present axioms of the set theory. It other words the Law of Excluded middles does not hold. A great and shocking result you will agree but these results again demonstrate the power of reason. When Hamlet says "to be or not to be" or when Ghalib says,

تماشائے گلشن تمنائے چیدن　　بہار آفرینا گنہ گار ہیں ہم

تا دل بہ دنیا دادہ ام در کشمکش افتادہ ام　　اندوہِ فرصت یکطرف، ذوقِ تماشا یکطرف

We see that in either case tragedy is brought about by undecidatility on the part of the actors. It is said that Godel was a sad man after his fundamental discovery and had

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colleagues called him "poor Godel". Herman Weyl had said, "The magnificent edifice of mathematics is largly built on sand." All the same the theorem remain true. The get of water from a pump describes a parabola, the human head has a point where hair can not grow (the hairy ball theorem) the circumference of a circle bearing a constant ratio to its diameter and to cap it all e + 1 = 0 (Euler) and the resulting aesthic pleasure, well there is nothing to match it.

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POETRY & THE TYRANNY OF TIME

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The moving finger writes; and having writ,
Moves on: nor all the pity nor wit
Shall lure it back to cancel half a line
Nor all the Tears wash out a word of it.

(Omar Khyyam)

O, how shall summer's honey breath hold out
Against the wakeful seige of battering days,
When rocks impregnable are not so stout,
Nor gates of steel so strong but Time decays.

(Shakespeare)

That is how two great masters, one from the East and the other from the West, express their sense of bewilderment and helplessness about the tyrant of tyrants, Time — a tyrant who can neither be defined nor defied. Although a matter of seminal importance for religion, philosophy and science alike, man has failed to define the nature and identity of Time in spite of his earnest and continuous efforts towards this end. Does time have an independent existence apart from space or is it the fourth dimension of the space conventionally regarded as three-dimensional? In other words, are time and space two independent entities or do they combine to produce what is termed as the space-time continuum? Is Time another name for Fate or Destiny or different from it? Shall we be justified in defining time in terms of our experience as denizens of the planet earth?

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Here we compute time according to the rotation and revolution of the globe; but is this the reality of Time? Supposing we lived on a different planet — say the Mars—shall we compute time and conceive of it in the same way as upon the earth? Is time relative to the observer and his location in the space-time continuum as Einstein implied or does it have an existence apart from the observer and his position? Is the time of the immaterial beings different from the time of material beings and is Divine Time different from that of both, as classical Muslim thinkers, building on hints from the Quran, believed? What did Prophet Muhammad (*sal Allahu alihi wasallam*) mean when he said that time should not be arraigned as God says, "I am Time; I alternate the day and the night."? These are some of the mind-boggling questions that raise their head as soon as we try to examine the nature and character of time.

This essay does not propose to answer these questions for that would be daring where angels fear to tread. Raising relevant questions in a subject like this is more important than the exercise of trying to find their answers. That exercise is best left to philosophers like Plotinus, Kant and Bergson and scientists like Newton, Einstein and Stephen Hawking. This essay is an attempt to see how poetry has tried to grapple with the enigma and mystery of time; its inexorability and intractibility, and its omnipotence and invincibility in relation to man.

The response of poetry to the challenge of Time is manifold and diverse. It ranges from the attitude of resignation and calm acceptance to petulant rage and open defiance with many other emotions included in the gamut.

The attitude of calm and philosophic acceptance of the tyranny of time has produced poetry of uncommon serenity and immeasurable though unruffled depth, rarely visible on the surface. Yeats's verse,

Man is in love, and loves what vanishes
What is there more to say?

may apparenttly seem quite casual but is, in reality, the

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quintessence of wisdom not gained through the easy way. Such is the followingg quatrain of Omar Khayyam:

Oh, come with old Khayyam, and leave the wise
To talk: one thing is certain, that life flies;
One thing is certain, and the rest is Lies:
The flower that once has blown for ever dies.

How ironical is the first verse, couching the invitation to wisdom in language that laughs at wisdom; and how fatally does the last verse strike at such theories as Nietzsche's doctrine of Eternal Recurrence? The immortal Hafiz extends the invitation in a more naive and homely though never less effective manner:

Come talk of the singer and the wine and care less and less to probe the mystery of time,
For none has, with wisdom, and none shall ever resolve this enigma.

Yeats, Khayyam and Hafiz subtly point to the helplessness of man in the hands of the Time and the transience of human life, as the mainspring of an abiding charm in poetry. This charm is the epicurean vein, the cry of *carpe diem*, 'gather ye rosebuds while ye may.' In the vision of a master-artist like Ghalib, transience becomes an asset and not a liability.

Na ho marna to jine ka maza kia

If there were no death, life would lose all charm

This is a more positive and optimistic affirmation of life than Shakeshpeare's,

Men must endure
Their going hence even as their coming hither:
Ripeness is all..

Or Wordsworth's soothing consolation that the passing of life compensates for what we certainly lose:

The clouds that gather round the setting sun
Do take a sober colouring from an eye
That hath kept watch o'er man's mortality;
Another race hath been, and other palms are won.

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Thanks to the human heart by which we live,
Thanks to its tenderness, its joys, and fears,
To me the meanest flower that blows can give
Thoughts that do often lie too deep for tears.

The idea of endurance in Shakespeare's verse; 'the clouds' the 'sunset', the notes of 'sobriety' and 'maturity', the 'joys and fears' of the human heart' and finally the mention of 'tears' in wordsworth's verses bring the essential note of sadness and tragedy in. Compensation has come but at what great price:

Mit'ta hai fouti fursate hasti ka gham kahin
Umre aziz sarfi ibadat hi keun na ho!
Can the grief on the loss of the lease of life ever wither away!
Even if the dearly valued life is spent in the paths of virture and piety.

Other poets sound the epicurean note more directly. Knowing that it is futile to tempt the "old gipsy man" to "stay", they insist on defeating time in other ways available to ordinary men. Ordinary men cannot prolong their lease of life inordinately as Zeus prolonged his night of love with Alcmene, the last mortal woman whom he loved, or as Joshua had the day extended to complete the rout of the Amorites. The ordinary man is always haunted by the winged chariot of time closing in on him from behind:

But at my back I always hear
Time's winged chariot hurrying near:
And yonder all before us lie
Deserts of vast Eternity.

To frustrate the designs of time, let the ordinary man make the most of his three score years and ten, derive the maximum out of every mement and never defer anything:

Thus though we cannot make our sun
Stand still, yet we will make him run.

But does the reach of poetry or art in general end here? Can't we go beyond tempting time as Ralph Hodgson does or find ingenious ways of showing our superiority to it as

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Ghalib does:

> Be kind and recall me whenever you choose
> I am not like the time past that I cannot return.

However intensely and fruitfully we live, the fact remains that we live as prisoners of time. Is there no way out of the inexorable clutches of time? 'Yes', say the great artists implicitly or explicitly. Love, in its broad sense, is the force that conquers time—love which Christ Characterised as God, Love that holds the universe together and creates order out of chaos. Love is the human soul in action and soul is divine in essence. "I breathed into man of My own soul", says God Almighty in the Quran. Iqbql, who believed that great art must defy time, remarks in his great poem, *The Mosque of Cordova*, that products of love withstand the ravages of death and time:

> Relentless and swift is the raging torrent of Time,
> But love itself is a torrent and stems the tide of Time.

The young but mature Shelley saw this very early. In *Prometheus Unbound* he says:

> Fate, Time, Occasion, Chance and change—to these
> All things are subject but Love.

But the theme receives its most masterly treatment in the sonnets of Shakespeare. The great poet knows that "the never-resting time leads summer on to hideous winter" and "nothing against time's scythe can make defence" but yet he issues the challenge:

> Devouring Time, blunt thou the lion's paws.
> And make the earth devour her own sweet brood;
> Pluck the keen teeth from the fierce tiger's jaws,
> And burn the long-lived phoenix in her blood...
> Yet do thy worst, old Time: despite thy wrong
> My love shall in my verse ever live young.

It is love that eternally shines through the spell-binding sublimity of the Mosque of Cordova, the enchanting beauty of the Taj and the Alhambra, the everlasting durability of the great Pyramids, the awe-inspiring aspect of the

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Egyptian Sphinx to whom Time itself makes obeisance, the immortal songs of Sadi, Hafiz, Shakespeare, Kalidas, Ghalib and Iqbal, springing from the vibrations of the human heart, the lasting and enigmatic smile on the lips of Mona Lisa— all these are esentially inspired by Love. All else is dross, the fury and mire of human veins, ephemeral and disdainful:

A starlit or a moonlit dome disdains
All that man is,
All mere complexities
The fury and mire of human veins.

That is how Yeats celebrates the time-defying dome of Santa Sophia which is as immense and sublime as the azure dome overhead.

Chronos, according to Greek mythology, swallowed up his own progeny. To the Greeks Chronos is also known as the 'Father Time' and many of our words relating to time— chronic, chronology, chronicle— are derived from this source. Chronos continued to eat up his own children until Zeus was saved by his mother and grew up to destroy his father. If Chronos is Time, then it devours all that it gives birth to until it meets its waterloo at the hands of Love. In the inimitable words of the bulbul of Shiraz:

Hargiz ne mirad aunki dilesh zindeh shud be Ishq
Sabtast ber jaridae aalam dawami ma

Never can he experience death whose heart receives life from Love;
Our name is indelibly writ on the annals of the world.

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A RELEVENT HISTORY OF SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY

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In this paper, I shall assume a certain familiarity with the history of social anthropological theory during the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century. Evolutionism, Diffusionism and Functionalism typify developments in the social anthropological theory of his period. It is the very nature of the development of social science theory that it is cumulative and critical rather than substitutive as in the natural sciences. Thus, in this, the last quarter of the 20th century, the writings of the 19th century social theorists like Durkheim, Weber, Veblen, etc., are resorted to as catalysts of inventions in contemporary sociological theory. We are witness continually to innovations in our sociological understanding and our inventions always contian an element of discovery. Hence, there is a *Prima facie* case for a developmental framework in discussing the relationship between history and social anthropology. Within the scope of this paper it is impossible to be comprehensive, and my developmental perspective is based on a potted history of the interconnections between the two disciplines. I limit myself to a critical review of the elements of a method and the propositions of a theory which together constituted a new synthesis between social Anthropology and History in the 1970's.

The only major argument I propose to develop here is about the direction in which a relevant interpretation of the past is to be aided by social anthropological research. The

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issue of relevance in social science, as I see it, pertains to three contexts-the nation, the 'third world', and the international community. I have a separate justification for recognizing each one of these contexts as significant. The nation, as the political community, is the maximal equivalent of a politically bounded social structure which is the conventional unit of social anthropological sutdy. All societies bounded by political communities which have emerged but recently from a colonial status belong to the 'third world'. They share the common attribute of having been affected in structurally homologous ways by the universal phenomenon of colonialism. The international community is normatively the most significant context of intellectual relevance for the scientist; that in practice, this too has been moulded by political constraints is quite well known and needs no reiteraion. It is characteristic of much of the present-day British Social Anthropology that the question of relevance, and the kinds of discriminations among contexts which I am impelled to make at the outset, are both conspicuous by their absence in the writings of western students of 'other cultures'. This is a fact of no mean significance for the anthropologist would-be-historian, for, in anthropoligical parlance his deficiency is known by the name of ethnocentricity and the label fitted British Social Anthropology most piquantly up to the 1950's and quite precisely because in many writings the colonial bias was quite unconsciously and invisibly held.

I should like to impose the above contextual scheme of relevance on Evans-Pritchard's (E-P's) statement about the method of social anthropology as a kind of historiography. My considered reason for selecting E-P as a test-case is that, incidental aberrations notwithstading, his is a forthright and simple aproach in the last context mentioned above. This, I believe, is an unintended consequence of his defining the scope of social anthropology consistently as being concerned with primitive societies in the main, and of the excellent fieldwork he conducted in such societies. The connection between these apparently different things

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may not at first sight be apparent; and indeed many of the illustrations from the eworks of English historians (including E-P's contemporaries at Oxford) cited by him even further obscure the deep relationship between E-P's own studies of primitive societies and his commitment to the historical method. Thus, on the manifest level, E-P's statements are open to an interpretation in the national context, but in a latent sense-thanks to his actual studies of primitive societies and long intensive fieldwork in such societies-the paradox is more apparent than real. I shall return to it when considering the development of a theory of history in contemporary social anthropology and sociology. On the credit side we may place E-P's emphasis on the linking of events as being important to both-social anthropology and history and in both, the perception of a necessary complementarity between uniqueness and generality of events. The former emphasis has been developed into the theory of structuralism broadened beyond anthropology and the latter into the notion of specificity which is a corollary of the structuralist method as distinct from theory. On the debit side I must mention his projection of principles derived from elementary situations on to complex ones and a kind of socio-linguistic argument which continues to plague modern British social anthropology. Thus in relation to "societies and cultures which are far from simple and undeveloped", he makes a curious distinction between, on the one hand, the Near and Far East and, on the other hand, India. Whereas in the study of the former, "history cannot be ignored", his prime example for the Indian past is the approach of Professor Dumont who, says E-P, "is quite right to insist on the interdependence of the Social Anthropology of India and Indology". It is again not in the purpview of this paper to examine Professor Dumont's Indological approach to Indian history; suffice it to say that the combination of structuralism with historical method is the weakest part of *Homo Hierarchicus*. As an example of Dumont's biased approach towards Indian history, it may be pointed out that he traces the germs of the two-nation theory right from the

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Moghul times. He also postulates the stiffening of Hindu scriptural authority in rural areas because of the Moghul's hostility towards Hinduism. Dumont, it is obvious, does not appreciate the pluralism introduced by the synthesis between Hinduism and Islam.

Having mentioned this reservation-basically that Evans-Pritchard chose the wrong authority to make a case for taking history into account in social anthropological studies in India, let me very briefly state his general view about the convergence *in method* between social anthropology and history. The work of anthropologist may be seen divided into three phases; and in each phase there is a striking methodological resemblance between his work and that of the historian. The first is a study of a particular culture. If the historian's problems are generally diachronic, and those of the anthropologist synchronic, this is only a difference of emphasis not one of interest. Thus a work of history like Burckhard's *Culture of the Renaissance* (a much earlier Indian example that springs to mind is Kalhan's *Rajatarangini*) is like an anthropological monogrqaph while E-P's own book *Sanusi of Cyrenaica*, being a book about a society developing in time, is a book of history. The second phase is that of analysis whereby the social anthropologist seeks to disclose the latent underlying form of a society or culture. Historical works of this sort are the writings, say, of Foustel de Coulanges *'La Cite Antique'* and similar classics by historians of the early periods of history, with fewer documents and a family resemblance of primitive socieities in that the social and cultural life in those works is portrayed as an integrated whole. The third phase is that of comparison, which activity Evans-Pritchard looks upon as 'cultural translation'. Since this anthropological perspective is crucial for the way in which Evans-Pritchard conceives the convergence of *aims* between the two disciplines, I quote his own words as a prelude to my critique:

> "In the third phase of his work the anthropologist compares the social structures his analysis has reveled in a wide range of societies.... In some historical

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writers comparison and classification are quite explicit; always they are implicit, for history cannot be written except against a standard of some kind, by comparison with the culture of a different time or people, if only with the writer's own... Historians can supply social anthropologists with invaluable materials, sifted and vouched for by critical techniques of testing and interpretation. Social anthropologists can provide the historians of the future with some of his best records, based on careful and detailed observations."

This was said by E-P in the course of his Marret Lecture at Exeter College, Oxford in 1950 (Social Anthropology: Past and Present). He went on to take a stand opposed to Radcliffe-Brown by defining social anthropology as a kind of historiography and, thus, akin to the Humanities. Radcliffe-Brown, on the other hand, had spoken of sociology as a theoretical natural science of society and social anthropology, according to him, was a branch of comparative sociology (that confind largely to the study of primitive societies), the purpose of comparison in social anthropology/sociology being the discovery of general laws of social life. The debate between the adherants of these opposed schools (Natural Science versus the Humanities) remained inconclusive and as of now has largely proved irrelevant with the development of Human Science and of scientific history. It was in any case illusory, and I shall write of it no more. My sole justification for taking it up here is that it set the perspective for social anthropological debates (at least in Britain and British-influenced students even in Indian Sociology during the 1950's and 1960's) for relating their methods to those of historians. (Even as late as the year 1968 I was advised by Professor Srinivas who had just dedicated his bok *'Social Chance in Modern India* to E-P, to read Namier for methodological edification to understand the relevance of 19th century Bundelkhand history for my anthropological fieldwork on Status and Power in that region).

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Let me, however, return to more serious issues in Evans-Pritchard's statement. Judged against the criterion of relevance, he is saying two different things in regard to the implicit or explicit method of comparison-as cultural translation-in both social anthropology and history. In the first instance, he speaks of a standard of comparison and admits that this may be the writer's own culture. The problem of objectivity is solved by the precept of distantation. What, one may ask, are the boundary conditions of this culture, especially the character of the political community by which a social system is bounded ? This question boys both the social anthropologist and the historian, though in different ways. E-P's answer is contained in a hint that the record of detailed observations made by social anthropologist can shed on history, by their discovery of latent structural forms, the light of universals. The rositivistic persuasion of E-P as a field-anthropologist enables him, as the observer-cum-interpreter of *events*, to establish a dialectic between uniqueness and generality in the work of social anthropologists as historiographers. For him the anthropologist, in all three phases of his work is carrying out cultural translation: interpreting alien categories of thought and action into terms familiar to him from his own culture; carefully noting the consonance and dissonance between these categories, and continually augmenting the universal analytical vocabulary for the study of culture (with a capital C). It is very striking indeed that this method paid rich dividends in E-P's studies of Huer Religion and Zande Witchcraft but led to a static typology of African political systems into acephalous and centralized ones (Easton, 1959). Firstly, the latent structural forms discovered by the anthropologist-cultural translator are both credible and informative as systems of thought (superstructures), but in the absence of a theory of culture or society which relates thought to the changing context of social action-they demand credulity and suffer from indeterminancy. Secondly, howsoever much E-P may write about the importance of the study of *events*, there can be little doubt

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that the constraints of holding the office of govenment anthropologist in a colonial regime soverely circumscribed his field of observation and analysis. It introduced a bias in favour of stability and equilibrium which effecively concealed the widespread disruption caused by colonial conquest and rule in the lives of the indigenous people.

The telling example of an historian whose writings in many ways represent a rudimentary method of cultural translation is V. Smith. I am familiar with Smith's writings because of my own research on Status and Power in the eastern Bundelkhand region of north Madhya Pradesh. In his recording and interpretations of the regional dynastic history and folklore, the colonialist bias is clearly reflected. Simth, as a British historiographer of India, writing from the late 19th to the early 20th centuries *assumes* political paramountcy to have always been a dominant constraint on the regional culture of Bundelkhand. The premise of paramountcy runs deep even to the extent of his introducing exogenous elements in recording legends. (The example of the legend of Hardual: In Smith, the ghost of Hardual *requests* the Emperor to order the building of *Chabutaras* for him throughout his kingdom; actually all versions collected by me agree that *Chabutaras* were built by the Emperor to *honour* Hardual after a terrible visitation by his ghost). Similar examples can be multipllied many times over and from the works of a number of British historiographers of India. (of. Majumdar; *Historiography in Modern India*). This kind of bias, which is *unconsciously* held, effectively restricts the historian's choice of events and cultural elements that he records and interprets. The difference between historians of this persuasion and the anthropologist who worked under the colonial setting is that the latter's biases are often intractable. While the historian does not explicitly claim to reveal the unconscious structure of cultures and social systems, such understanding is a crucial part of the programme of the structuralist anthropologist. Hence statements about the discovery of latent structural forms and universals such as those of Evans-

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Pritchard and Claude Levi-Strauss.

This brings me to the last point of this discussion, the development of a theory in the social sciences-that of structuralism-which may suggest a new level of integration between history and social anthropology. For such a development to take place, two conditions will have to be met to remove the complications which the earlier thories of social anthropology as a kind of historiography have been unable to surmount: 1. We should try to aspire for a method which would eliminate an imperial, a colonialist, or a nationalist bias in the writing of history and social anthropology. This methodological issue is not easily resolved. Inter-subjectivity (e.g., the method of cultural translation), as a methodological procedure has by far been the most favoured answer to the difficulty of objectifying the human subject of study in social sciences. Does structuralism provide a different solution ? 2. The subject matter of study for the structuralist school in social anthropology, eminently the one associated with Claude Levi-Strauss, are systems of symbolic representation. This delimitation of the scope of its subject-matter makes it amenable to take the time dimension into account for synchronic analysis. As regards diachronic analysis, the stand taken by Claude Levi-Strauss is far from clear. He himself has not conducted or inspired such a study. For him the history of societies and cultures enlarges for the structuralist anthropologist a range of transformations which he may observe comparatively and spatially, *i.e.*, through synchronic analysis. Unconscious thought-and-action structures are, he says, implicitly laid bare in good works of history, and he cites economic history as an example. To that extent, there is no fundamental divergence of aims between the anthropologist and the historian. But these statements about history-as subservient to synchronic analysis and, yet, indissociable with social anthropology-evade to my mind the basic question which concerns the study of *events*, changing relations between the infrastructure and superstructure. If anthropological structuralism can be made subservient to the study of these

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relations in the 'third world' context of relevance, only then the 'indissociability' between history and anthropology will be vindicated.

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URBANIZATION

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Urban growth in India has been quite slow in the beginning of the present century and also in the last part of the nineteenth century. However, the redistribution of the population, world over, from rural to urban settlements has been quite substantial. In some of the industrially developed countries, over three quarter of the population is urban, and the population of the world as a whole is well on the way to becoming proponderantly urban. India too is set in the same course. Indeed its population is still predominantly rurals only, approximately 23 percent of the population was urban in the year 1981. In this paper it is proposed to bring out the important trends in the urbanisation and the problems arising out of urbanisation.

Urban settlements in India could be traced back to the Indus Valley civilisation more than 4000 years ago. The proportion of urban population remained quite low for centuries with little variation. Indeed slow and steady rise has been observed during the last six decades or so. The official information on rural-urban population has been systematically collected in India every ten years by the Census Department of the Government of India, Ministry of Home Affairs. This process began only from the year 1901 onwards. The iformation on census is available from various angles.

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There is no uniform information available on rural and urban settlemnt adopted by different countries. In India, census authorities have their own definition of settlements and have changed it further since the 1961 census. For the earlier five census 1901 to 1951, a settlement was regarded as urban (usually are known as town) if it fulfilled any one of the following three conditions:

(*i*) If it was governed by a municipality irrespective of its size;

(*ii*) if it was a civil lines even though not included within municipal limits; and

(*iii*) if it consisted of a continuous collection of houses, permanently inhabited by not less than 5000 persons, provided further that it was treated as a town for census purposes by the provincial census superintendent.

From the 1961 census the revised definition of town stipulates that to be regarded as urban, a settlement should fulfil all the following three criteria : (*i*) A population of at least 5000; (*ii*) a density of less than 1000 persons per square mile, and (*iii*) a minimum of three fourths of its working force in non-agricultural occupation.

The objectivity of the above definition has been diluted by an additional provision which states that regardless of the non-fulfilment of one or more of the above three criteria, the census superintendent can declare a settlement as urban if he is satisfied that it has a few pronounced urban characteristics. This led to declaration of many settlements as towns in the year 1961. Therefore showing relative lower ratios of urbanisation and urban growth during the decade 1951-1961.

In the year 1971 census the concept of Town Group was descarded in favour of that of "Urban Agglomeration" which included a city and all other urban areas outside the municipal boundaries but not taking into account rural pockets. Another new concept of "Stardard Urban Area" was introduced in 1971 to take into account rural but potential urban areas around the city.

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We may now turn our attention to the trends of urbanisation and urban growth (see Table 1). It is found that urbanisation.

Table 1. Urban popultion, level and tempo of urbanisation in India since 1901

Census year	*Urban population (in '000s)*	*Decadal percentage change in urban population*	*Level of urbanisation*	*Tempo of urbanisation*
1	2	3	4	5
1901	25,852	-	10.84	-
1911	25,942	0.35	10.29	5.07
1921	28,086	8.27	11.18	8.65
1931	33,456	19.12	11.99	7.25
1941	44.153	31.97	13.86	15.60
1951	62,444	41.42	17.29	24.75
1961	78,937	26.41	17.97	3.93
1971	109,114	38.23	19.91	10.80
1981	159,727*	46.39**	23.31*	17.08**

* Including projected population of Assam as at 1981.

** Computed by ranking into account the projected population of Assam as at 1981 Census.

In India from 1901 to 1981, the percentage of urban population has increased from 10.84 to 23.31. This may be considered as rate of urbanisation. It would also be noticed that there has been fluctuation in the rate of urbanisation during 1931-41 and 1951-61. There has been steep fall in the rate of urbanisation during 1951-61. This may be because of the new definition of the concept of urbanisation. It may be noted here the rate of urbanisation in other countries has been higher than in India. This may be because of rapid urbanisation, industraillisation and economic development. Though the Indian Government has policy for higher rate of urbanisation and industrialisation,

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it is surprising that result has not been very satisfactory.

As a result of uneven growth of urban population the level of urbanisation varied considerably during 1901-81 (see Table 2).

Table 2: Level of Urbanisation in different Zones

Census year	ZONE				
	Northern	Eastern	Central	Western	Southern
1901	13.02	6.09	10.46	18.09	11.48
1911	12.46	6.19	9.18	16.14	11.70
1921	13.04	6.68	9.68	18.72	12.62
1931	14.49	7.03	10.32	18.91	13.98
1941	16.19	9.17	11.64	21.68	15.76
1951	20.83	11.06	13.17	28.05	20.14
1961	21.62	12.92	12.29	27.24	20.96
1971	23.50	14.27	14.75	30.03	23.30
1981	27.76	16.60*	18.70	33.61	26.80

* Level of urbanisation for the Eastern Zone has been worked out taking into account the projected population of Assam as at 1981.

It may be seen from the data that during 1901-11 the level of urbanisation remained almost same in two zones, *i.e.*, Eastern and Southern zone, whereas it declined in the remaining three zones. Later, there has been steady increase in urbanisation in all the zones with exception of western zone where it declined slightly during 1951-61.

Rural to urban migration is the principal source of urbanisation though it may not accounted for urban growth. The 1961 and 1971 census provides some information in addition to the migration pattern in general. The broad pattern of migration are more or less the same for the decade 1951-61, and 1961-71. According to 1961 census, 30.7 per cent of the population was born outside the place of enumeration and the corresponding percentage in 1971 was 29.5. The majority of the migrants, around 70 per cent

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of the total were women. The preponderence of women is due to the social practice whereby most women change their residence at marriage.

We may now make a modest attempt to look into the impact of urbanisation on nature and extent of offences because of urbanisation. As it is well known, offences are grouped into two broad categories: cognizable and non-cognizable offences. By and large, the distinction between the two is arbitrary. In respect of non-cognizable offences, the aggrieved are required to seek redressal through court. in contrast, cognizable offences are, from the official angle, serious in nature and the police intervene at their own. Owing to this kind of differentiation, the police remain almost unconcerned with the non-cognizable. This may be having an unsalutory effect on law and order as also on police-public relations. Relevant for the present purposes is the fact that non-cognisable offences are not published in Crime in India. At this stage, attention may also be diverted to socio-economic offences. Apart from the fact of public and official 'tolerance', these forms of pernicious behaviour are reportedly on the increase. However, no reliable data are at hand which would provide us an idea about their precise nature and extent. As such, there is little choice except to focus attention only on cognizable offences as published in Crime in India.

The incidence of crime in Kanniyakumari is relatively low. For example, only 22 murders, a single rape and 10 cases of kidnapping and abduction were reported in 1977. In comparison, the number of property offences like burglary (242) and theft (300) was relatively large. Taken together, law enforcement does not appear to pose much of a problem in the district.

In the relatively more urbanised-industrialised district of Chengalpattu the incidence of crime appears to be high. In 1977, 43 murders, 8 rapes and 54 kidnappings/abductions were reported. The number of property offences was correspondingly larger: burgalary, 1133; theft, 2922; and cheating, 70. Besides, the district registered a large number of riots (910). The incidence of crime thus appears to be high

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in this district of Tamil Nadu.

By all reckoning, Almora appears to be much law-abiding. In 1977, this hilly district had no case of murder, culpable homicide or dacoity. There occured only four cases of kidnapping/abduction and one that of rape. Despite topographical ruggedness and probable economic hardship, the district did not have many offences against property; and only a few cases of burglary (43), theft (38) and the like were registered by the police. Apparently, among all the four districts under sutdy, Almora appears to be the most peaceful.

In crime pattern, Unnao stands out. Although it has an incidence of offences against property which is lower than that of Chengalpattu, it has a noticeably higher incidence of offences against person. In 1977, the numer of burglary and theft cases was a little more than a thousand each. In sharp contrast, during the year, a large number of murders (160), culpable homicides (32), rapes (20) and kidnappings/abductions (51) were registered. This apart, about 200 dacoities and 300 robberies were also reported. It would be, therefore, justifiable to remark that the crime pattern in the district in conspicuous by violence.

Finally, it may be noted that the crime problem appears to be less serious in Almora followed by Kanyakumari. While offences against property are frequent in Chengalpattu, offences against person are in Unnao.

Crime Trends. Criminological analysis is often handicapped for want of a consensual crime-index. Lumping all offences together is hardly a satisfactory procedure of measure. Offences may differ in terms of injury they inflict upon the victims and in terms of fear they generate in the populace. Here, in the absence of an agreed upon crime-index, two broad categories of offences have been fromed.

As mentioned earlier, concerning the period 1971-78, two broad groups, offences against person and offences against property, have been set up (see Table 3). Towards ascertaining crime trends, a closer look may be had at the date.

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A more realistic assessment of the incidence of crime can be had, if the two categories of offences are expressed as the ratio of population. The four districts may be ranked in ascending order in terms of offences against person per 1,00,000 population: Almora (minimum 0.13 and maximum 1.19), Kanniyakumari (1.30 and 2.72), Chengalpattu (1.67 and 4.42), and Unnao (10.79 and 15.64). This rank-order is not affected when the ratio of offences against property to population is examined. Almora (minimum 10.90 and maximum 17.91), Kanniyakumari (32.47 and 57.11), Chengalpattu (31.47 and 147.07) and Unnao (114.39 and 231.33). It may be observed that the crime population ratio both in Almora and Kanniakumari has remained almost constant. In respect of Chengalpattu, the proportion of offences against property is perceptibly high. The position in Unnao is noteworthy. The proportion of offences against property has remained more or less the same; but that against person is markedly large.

In order to secure a more dependable estimate of crime trends in the four districts, the co-efficients of regression between population (independent variable) and the two categories of offences (dependent variables) have been computed. It is found that offences against person are certainly on the increase, yet this is far from being uniform over the four districts. For every addition of 1,00,000 persons to the population the number of offences against persons adding up to the average is 113 in Chengalpattu, 81 in Kanniyakumari, 93 in Almora and 428 in Unnao. These regression trends may well be compared with the crime-population ratios outlined earlier. The two high urban growth districts outstrip and other two in terms of the trend concerning offences against person.

Next, the position in respect of offences against property may be looked into. Interestingly, the trend is seen to be almost reversed. The statistical trend is that in Unnao with the addition of every 10,00,000 persons to the population, offences against property decrease by 1710; and this

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Table 3 Offences Agaisnt person And Property And Population In the Districts of Kanniyakumari, Chengalpattu, Almora and Unnao During 1971-1978.

Offence	*1971*	*1972*	*1973*	*1974*	*1975*	*1976*	*1977*	*1978*
Kanniyakumari								
Person	16	31	27	25	31	18	33	37
Property	510	417	408	446	430	518	573	775
Population (in thousands)	1223	1243	1264	1286	1308	1330	1353	1357
Chengalpattu								
Person	80	53	86	79	54	58	106	150
Property	915	3864	4002	3859	4278	3288	4225	4980
Population (in thousnads)	2906	3037	3104	3172	3242	3313	3386	3386
Almora								
Person	3	1	2	6	9	5	5	1
Property	97	106	132	124	136	83	101	54
Population (in thousands)	750	752	755	757	759	561	764	766
Unnao								
Person	160	178	228	202	216	248	263	260
Property	2222	3506	1936	2569	2042	1884	2578	2290
Population (In thousands)	1484	1516	1547	1580	1613	1647	1682	1717

trend is even stronger in the case of Almora district: these offences tend to decrease as much as by 2430. In sharp contrast the districts of Kanniyakumari (1850) and Chengalpattu show a steep rise (4710).

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22

THEORITICAL FOUNDATION OF ADOLESCENT BEHAVIOUR

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Meaning of Adolescence

A very substantial proportion of the members of every society is in that phase of development which we call adolescence. This proportion, however, varies from culture to culture and within the same culture from time to time. Exceptionally high percentage of adolescents is found in societies where the transition period between childhood and adulthood is prolonged considerably. It is probably due to this reason that there was a much smaller percentage of adolescents in the earlier period of our history and in certian primitive societies.

Most of the parents and educators dread this period in the child's life because it presents countless problems. This period is charcterized by imbalance, unpredictablity and instability on the part of adolescents. Adolescence should not be confused with puberty which is the period in pre and early adolescence when sexual maturity occurs. Adolescence as it is recognized now, includes all phases of maturing. Owing to the complexities of present-day living, social and emotional maturity can be reached only after a reasonable period of time.

The term adolescence comes from the Latin verb 'adolescence' meaning to grow to maturity. In this sense, it is a process of attaining attitudes and beliefs which are essential for effective participation in a complex society. Accoridng to the dictionary meaning, the term adolescence

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refers to the transition period between puberty and adult stages of development. The timing of this transition and its duration varies in different societies. According to Hurlock the period of adolescence extends from sexual maturity until the age when independence from authority is legally assured. Adolescence is viewed by Rogers as the period in which the society ceases to regard a person as a child but does not yet accord him full adult status, roles and functions. Landes defines adolescence as follows:

> "Chronologically, the adolescence youth group is made up of persons twelve to twenty-four years of age; psychologically of those terminating a prolonged period of infancy; sociologically of those who are trying to bridge the gap between dependent childhood and self-sufficient adulthood."

Horrocks accepts the traditional definition of adolescence-a term used to describe individuals who are in a transitional period between childhood and maturity.

All the above definitions emphasize the following things regarding adolescence:

(a) It is a period between the end of childhood and beginning of adulthood,

(b) This period varies in different societies,

(c) It is a period of seeking status and recognition,

(d) It is a period of significant growth and development,

(e) It is a period of great preoccupation with group and hetero-sexual activities,

(f) It is a period of intellectual expansion and development.

In a sense, adolescence is more than a period of stage of human development. It is a way of life and influences much of the adult life in various ways.

Adolescent Period

As stated above, adolescence begins from sexual maturity and extends upto the age when independence from

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adult authority is legally assured. The boundary between the age at which sexual maturity occurs is not same for all persons. Hurlock has tried to give a classification of the entire adolescent period into the following three classes in terms of average ages for large groups of individuals:

(a) Preadolescence- 10 to 12 years

(b) Early adolescence-13 to 16 years

(c) Late adolescence 17 to 21 years

Profound changes occur during adolescence. Any period of change is likely to be influenced by problems. Adolescent period will be accompanied by many potential difficulties since it is concerned with growth and development. While entering adolescence the individual is stepping into an enormoulsy expanded world, his mental and social life is tremendously influence. The problems faced by adolescents are somewhat different from those which are encountered during adulthood. Adolescents have certain pressing needs which must be met and have series of developmental tasks and problems which they must master in order to become self-sufficient members of the society. These problems arise largely due to rapid but uneven physical development, inadequate knowledge and experience, simultaneous presence of contradictory trends, and ambiguities in cultural roles.

Most of the adolescents tend to be more or less aggressive, self-conscious and reserved. They are generally more sensitve for fear of being exposed or ridiculed. As a result, they become indifferent and moody. The life of adolescents is full of many contradictions. They always protest the rulings of adults in their struggle to become independent of adult authority. Being unable to handle independence, they make demands for dependent security. Many a time adolescents are heard talking about violating rules of conduct prescribed by adults, but they rarely put these verbalizations into practice. Thus, there is a constant conflict between what they think and what they actually do, adolescents are generally idealists but their actual behaviour

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rarely manifest this out. Thus, conflicts within themselves and conflicts between the teen-ager on the one hand, and parents and society on the other, are common experiences and prolific sources of problems that the adolescents encounter.

The vivid picture of adolescents may lead one to believe as it did in the past, that these problems arise due to sudden and rapid physiological changes. The tendency today is to attribute much more of the 'adolescents behaviour to social factors. The findings of cultural anthropologists who have studied adolescents in primitive societies, have been particularly more effective in contributing to the present point of view. This, however, does not mean that biological bases of adolescent behaviour are less important, but it means that increased emphasis is now being placed upon the socio cultural determinants of behaviour. The modern point of view regarding adolescence emphasizes the fact that it is a period of transition during which the teenager is neither treated as child nor adult but is judged by the standards of both. This itself is a source of confusion. Transition also involves constant and bewildering changes which are profound and pervasive, and reach into every era of personality, emotional, sexual, social, moral and religious. Transition also means the gradual conversion of child into adult, and thus implies a continuous striving of the youngster for adult status. To them this adult status means independence, freedom and responsibility.

The Place of Adolescence in the Life Span

It is commonly observed that adolescence is a source of perplexity and anxiety, particularly to parents and teachers. Adolescents are hard pressed internally as well as externally to conform to adult expectations. It is for this reason that adolescents develop intimate relations with their peer groups. They adopt certain ways in adjusting to adult demands and other ways in adjusting to the demands of their peers. If the principles of their motivational striving are recognized, a listing of what seems to be major ado-

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lescnet needs will provide a framework within which to approach problems of adolescents adjustment. An attempt is therefore, made to generalize from the specific facts and to discuss the more important motives and needs characterizing the adolescent period.

One of the most important pervasive needs is the desire for social approval and acceptance. The need for status and acceptance involves the common need for security, the development of which depends upon existence of relationship involving affection, self-confidence, mutual trust and respect and freedom from threat in one's home or among one's colleagues at school or work.

Every individual needs certain amount of freedom for making decisions. This is very true of adults who continuously strive for self-determination and independence. The need to conform to the demands of the society also becomes a highly personal need largely due to the inter-nationalisation of the standards and norms of one's own particular culture. The standards and norms of one's own particular culture involve moral beliefs, sex codes, group loyalty, observance of law, religious virtues, attitudes of administration, hate or pity towards various national groups and many other personal values which form a highly complex structure known as value system.

Sex needs represent a very strong motivating force during a considerable portion of the life span of adolescents. The importance of sex in influencing the behaviour of adolescents is evident in many ways. The need for new experience is responsible for much of the progress human beings have made. This need represents partly the desire to do the things as one wants to, rather than the way they have been done by others in the past. The chief value which the need for new experience can supply in dealing with adolescents is like a main spring which can inspite ulimited efforts at work. Secondly, much of restlessness, antisocial behaviour and often appearing purposeless activities on the part of adolescents could be understood in terms of the need for new experience.

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The achievement of independence lies at the basis of self-identity. Self-identity as a basic psychological need is in every sense of the word a true requirement for mental health and adjustment. The adolescent must discover himself and come into possession of himself if he is to live successfully in an adult world.

Adolescent Culture

The culture in which a child is reared includes the total social environment consisting of customs, folk ways, ideas and belief systems which a child tries to internalize. The material environment of technological development - press, radio, movies, T.V., automobiles and houses etc., which have important psychological meaning also serves as an important determinant of behaviour. Culture makes its impact upon the youth through a great variety of ways such as family, school, church, press, radio, movies and various social organisations and informal groups to which the young belongs. The cultural transition is made by specific instructions towards defined objectives and through the use of rewards and punishments. The behaviour is thus directed towards certain objectives which are sometimes never clearly defined or even clearly recognized. Parent may try to restrict activities of their children in order to make them reach the desired ends, but such attempts at restriction will more often meet with failure than with success. The rewards of prestige and freedom of movement seem to be more valued if bestowed by the group, and it is probably for this reason that group influences can overwhelm parental instruction and prohibition. It has been suggested by researchers that the adolescent can feel a sense of power belongingness, and security and make better decisions in collaboration with his peers than with other groups. The peer group offers excellent opportunities for adolescents to initiate and to refine their social activities so as to enable them to participate and adopt to social situations on an easier ground. The family is no doubt an important agency in directing and regulating the behaviour along lines laid down by the adult culture, nevertheless it cannot transcend

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nor ever meet the contributions of the peer group in shaping values and determining a personal sense of security.

The question of interest naturally arises : in what specific respects do adolescent groups differ from adult groups? Obviously, adult groups do not differ from adolescent groups in terms of purposes, standards and rules of behaviour. The difference is in terms of what they emphasize. Adult groups demand conformity and uncritical acceptance of adult rules and sanctions, adolescents are generally not satisfied not only with the rules which are imposed without any explanation but also with the methods of imposing these rules. They generally feel that their demands are not adequately met by the adults. For the adolescent, acceptance by the peer group is what he believes to be of great importance. Through his peer group the adolescent achieves the status of an individual and friends support his efforts for emancipation from adult authority. The peer group is in a sense, a society formed by the adolescents so that they can satisfy their needs in ways approved by the members of this society.

This leads to an important question concerning the existence of the distinct adolescent sub-culture. The answer to this question will depend upon the knowledge concerning how and where the adolescent sub-culture departs from the total or universal culture. This leads to the specification of criteria for distinguishing the adolescent sub-culture from that of adult culture. It is generally believed by most of the scientists in America that there exists a yough culture which can be distinguished from adult culture. The most important area within which adult norms dominate youth behaviour is that of sex. Much of the secrecy and concealment connected with youth culture appears to protect youths from adult roles. Coleman as a result of his study of over 8000 American youths, concludes that youth culture is becoming stronger in modern times. The clique or the gang which is a major institution of youth culture sets norms that are different in many respects from

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those of the family and other adult norms. The critical evidence of the existence of the youth culture is the compulsive conformity required of its members. Talcott Persons asserts that one of the basic needs of adolescent culture is to be accepted and to be identified with the given youth groups. This acceptance requires a rigid patterning of behaviour. Coleman in his large scale study of society states that adolescents come to constitute a small society that has most of its important interaction within itself and maintain a few threads of connection with the outside societies. Coleman also observed distinct differences in the expressed values of adolescents and their parents. This provides the basis for the existence of youth culture. It is held by most of the investigators that observed differences in values or behaviour between adolescents and adults would be sufficient for the acceptance of the sub-culture notion. If the term culture is taken to mean a set of values that are different from the values of adults and to imply that these values are transmitted from one generation to another. It would be difficult to show the existence of an adolescent culture. The argument for the existence of the adolescent culture becomes stronger, if the term culture is taken to indicate patterns of behaviour which characterize certain segments of the teenage population. These patterns are in many respects different from those of adults. Sometimes these patterns of behaviour are in direct conflict with those of adults. Similar view is held by Rammers. According to him, adolescents culture is a matter of semantic and operational definition.

To conclude, it is generally held that there are specific behaviour patterns which could be observed among adolescents and that these patterns could be readily identified being part of a distinct sub-culture. According to the opinions of many investigators, adolescents do behave distinctly and hold different values that set them apart from other age groups.

Approaches to the study of Adolescents

In order to promote social and emotional adjustment

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every adolescent should be given adequate opportunities. The problems pertaining to adolescent development and adjustment are matters for serious concern not only to parents but also to the school people and other adults. Havighurst has been responsible for the development of the concept of developmental task in the study of adolescents. By developmental tasks, we mean those tasks that are common and faced by all individuals in a given group of societies. This concept has been proved to be very useful in studying adolescent adjustment. Havighurst has stated the following ten develomental tasks :

(a) Achievement of satisfying mature relations with the opposite sex.
(b) Acceptance of socially approved adult sex role
(c) Acceptance of one's own body and its effective use
(d) Securing emotional independence
(e) Getting assistance for economic independence
(f) Selection and preparation for future occupation
(g) Preparation for normal and healthy family life.
(h) Development of intellectual skill to cope up with demands
(i) Learning to behave in a socially approved manner
(j) Acquisition of set of values for guiding one's own behaviour along proper lines.

Accomplishing the developmental task is really speaking a difficult problem. Successful adjustment to a wise variety of situations depends upon he successful achievement of these aspects of development.

The various approaches that have been followed in the study of adolescents are :

(a) Biological approach,
(b) Social approach,
(c) Psychoanalytic approach, and
(d) Rankian approach.

According to the biological approach, the various psychological events which take place during adolescence are

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directly related to a wide variety of physiological changes. It is argued by the followers of this approach that the psychological effects which are produced by granular secretions are independent of cultural influences. Stanley Hall and other early investigators who associated with the biological point of view, ignored the facts that biological drives operate in a cultural setting. This native view that biological factors are the chief determinants of adolescent development was upheld by Margaret Mead and Ruth Benedict who as a result of their intensive work on primitive cultures demonstrated the importance of culture in patterning biological drives. It was recognized that certain special features of adolescents are partly determined by cultural differences in terms of norms and restrictions. Psychoanalysts have never paid any serious attention to the problems of adolescent development but they did attempt to fit the adolescents period in a general theory of personality development. The psychoanalytic approach is very similar to Hall's biological theory of recapitulation. Psychoanalytic theorists also conceive adolescence as a psychogenetically determined period of personality development. In addition, psychoanalytic theorists have postulated the existence of inherited ideational material and of highly specific drives and pattern which determine interpersonal behaviour. The theory of Otto Rank and his followers, though developed from the psychoanalytic tradition, does not place major emphasis upon the impact of psycho-sexual changes on adolescent personality development. Its focus is on a more general area of personality development that undergoes radical changes during adolescence. According to this theory, the need for a proper balance between the need for dependence and independence lies at the root of the adolescent's relationship with parents, peer groups and hetero-sexual companions.

The various approaches thus emphasize different view points regarding the determination of psychological events that occur during adolescence. During recent times, a large number of studies have been carried out to study adoles-

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cent problems, behaviour, interests, activities, etc. As a result of these studies, the role of culture and social factors in determining adolescent behaviour has been clearly recognized. Biological view point is limited in its application because it was framed in a context where little was known about adolescent behvaiour in various cultures. A review of some of the recent studies of adolescent behaviour will certainly throw light on various approaches that have been presented here.

Importance of Adolescent Study

Adolescent period has been regarded by many as a period of storm and stress in the life of an individual. These facts might serve as a great shock to those individuals who tend to regard adolescence as simply continuation of childhood development. The chief argument that is tendered against the separate study of adolescence is that the adolescent is after all a human being and his behaviour can, therefore, be subject to the same general laws of behaviour that govern all human beings irrespective of their age. In defence it could be said that various laws of behaviour that apply at all age levels apply at such a high degree of abstraction that they are highly inadequate in providing any explanation of behaviour at any particular stage of development. Age is, not doubt, an important factor in unfolding some basic developmental functions but it does not provide many explanation regarding how these functions would appear at any particular phase of development. The adolescent years can be grouped together no because they cover a decade but because they possess some amount of homogeneity in the contents of development. The most distinguishing feature of this period is that there is a profound change in the bio-social status of individuals. All adolescents are in a transitional stage of personality development throughout this period. Adolescents as a group differ in many respects from individuals at all other stages of development. Moreover, the rate of change of all the psychological functions during adolescence is greatly accelerated. The separate study of adolescence is justified by the fact that all

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adolescents tend to feel, think, learn and act in certain characteristic ways that set them apart from children and mature adults. The psychology of adolescence finds its application in everyday problems of inter-personal relationship.

It is thus quite apparent that no person whose effectiveness in interpersonal relations depends to a certain extent upon his ability to understand the behaviour of other persons can afford to neglect the study of the developmental factors which play a crucial role during adolescence. The study of the psychology of adolescence is, therefore, needed to deal with problems which arise due to the failure of our culture to specify clearly the roles and status of adolescents. A thorough investigation of adolescent cultue will be of great practical value as it would facilitate the developmental programmes for assisting them. Adults need to understand the developmental tasks of adolescents in order to help them and to interpret and transmit the culture in a manner conducive to the overall welfare of adolescents. The main reason for undertaking this study is that the area of adolescence is relatively unexplored in this country. There are hardly few investigaions in India which are directed to study overall behaviour of adolescents. a nation-wide survey is very much needed in this country not only to understand the problems of adolescents but also to help them solve the problems in ways which are conducive to the development of healthy personality.

Historical Perspective

Before a more detailed discussion of the characteristics of adolescents is undertaken, a brief note on social customs and rituals observed by various groups and societies while training adolescents to take on adult roles would prove to be of value. Even among primitive people, the transition from childhood to adulthood was considered to begin during puberty which is the period of sexual maturation. The maturing young boys and girls were made to experience the formal and rigid pattern of public ceremonies

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performed by their elders. The fitness of the young person for assuming adult responsibility and privileges was measured by subjecting him to the public ceremonies which covered several tests, forms of which varied from culture to culture. The boy was tested for physical prowess and endurance, courage, ability to tolerate pain in ways which were quite severe. Failure to pass any of the preliminary tests of endurance resulted in excluding the boy from participation in the activities of his peer who had attained the adult status.

The initiation rites associated with the assumption of adult status were much less severe for the sexually maturing girl than for the boy in primitive society. Girls were trained by their mothers for the assumption of adult roles by testing them for the duties and responsibilities of a wife and mother. She was encouraged to behave in ways so as to attract the attention of young tribesmen. She was also expected to do away with childish interests with the advent of puberty and display mature attitudes, greater emotional control and patterns of behaviour characteristic of adults. With the beginning of purberty, girls were restricted in their behaviour. They were prohibited from associating with members of the opposite sex. Boys enjoyed a relatively greater freedom in sexual matters. In some of the early primitive societies as well as the later cultural groups premarital sex-stimulated behaviour was condoned among males while it was strongly disapproved in case of females.

The most characteristic feature of the primitive societies in respect of training young persons was that the period of preparation for adult status was relatively short. There was a sudden change from childhood dependence to adult self-direction and social responsibility. The range of activities was of course restricted to the accepted convention. After a thorough acquaintance with the physical environment they were required to secure food and other life necessities for themselves and their family. Recreational outlets were limited to participation in or watching of physical feats of skills, games, dancing and similar other

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activities. Girls were encouraged to appreciate the female role of child bearing and rearing, housekeeping, and submissiveness. Their work was relatively simple and followed a traditional pattern of performance.

The needs and desires of the average young person were easily satisfied. The opportunities for the utilization of youthful energy as well as satisfying the need for adventure were found in hunting, engaging in welfare and performing feats of physical skill. In spite of taboos concerning sex, the attitudes towards sex were more accepting.

The picture of adolescents may lead one to believe that all primitive people were free from difficulties which are now found among many adolescents in other cultures. It should be noted here that no society is free from problems and difficulties but the nature of problems and the ways in which they are resolved differ very widely from society to society. For example the young boy in primitive society was free to mate and start his own home on production of an evidence of the home for the girl of his own choice. Among some primitive groups, class distinction and taboo limitations especially those that reflect cultural attitudes towards heterosexual relations were bases for many conflicts that was as serious as those which are experienced by modern young people.

In an ancient historical culture, there was little change in attitudes of adults towards the transition period from childhood to adulthood. In an early historic culture, however, the general trend was towards increasing the length of the period of adolescence from the limit of one month to many months. The second shift in the outlook towards adolescents was in the direction of developing new criteria for the attainment of adult status. The significance of cultural influences was gradually realized in training young men and women for assuming adult roles and status. Spartan boys, for example, were expected to become strong physically in order to fight successfully war for their country. The young boys in this culture were, therefore, subjected to rigorous training in order to make them brave and

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loyal to their country. Girls were expected to be physically strong and bear strong healthy sons. They were trained in order to prove themselves worthy mates of their husbands.

In Athens there was a slight change in the way children and adolescents were treated. This change was brought about by the fact that parents had some freedom for making decision concerning the education of their sons. Although self-control and good discipline were much more emphasized in this cultural group, the youngsters did enjoy themselves in free play. Young girls were trained by the older women so as to make them proficient in weaving, spinning, sewing, embroidering, music and in other household arts. Similarly, boys were trained so as to make them efficient in literature and music. Boys used to receive their education either at home or in school depending upon the financial status of the family. It is thus quite evident that the atmosphere was much more permissive in Athens than in Sparta. Roman culture witnessed a tremendous change around 300 B.C. due to the influence of Greek culture. In this culture the development of civic virtue, courage, justice and duty were more emphasized during the training of adolescents. The mother was responsible for preparing her daughter for becoming a good wife, mother and housekeeper. The father was largely responsible for training his son so that he might perform his duties of a man successfully. However, such training was restricted to a small segment of the population. During the later years of Roman supremacy, the influence of ideals of Hebraic and Christian cultures exercised a great deal of influences upon the general citizenry.

Man's life is biologically divided into various stages like infancy, childhood, adolescence, adulthood, maturity and senility by modern scientists. Ancient Indian law givers have also divided life into four principal stages by considering duties and responsibilities of man. These four stages are Brahmacharya or the period of training. Grahasthasrama or the period of work, vanaprasthastrama or the period of loosening of the social bonds, and Samnyasa or the period of renunciation. The first of these periods covers

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a period of approximately twelve years. The eighth year marks the beginning of this period in the case of Brahmans, the eleventh year in the case of Kshtriyas and the twelfth in the case of Vaisayas. The period is particularly important in evolving desirable characteristics in pupils which develop in the spiritual atmosphere pervading the hermitages of the gurus. This stage normally lasts for a period of tweleve years and for twenty four or twenty six years in the case of those who like to receive higher education. The whole atmosphere of the Asramas was so conditioned as to inculcate desirable traits and remove the undersirable ones. The development of moral virtues was too much emphasized during training. The smooth transition from adolescence to adulthood could be explained in terms of such training. Girls were not subjected to such training. They were trained by their parents to be good housewives. Moral training was so much emphasized that nobody thought of violating the norms of the society. Boys of less privileged classes were trained by their fathers so that they could help their fathers in their jobs.

During middle ages schooling for all children was not an accepted custom. The young boy was expected to develop those behaviour characteristics which were considered to be knightly. Some of these qualities were courage, chastity, loyalty to God, loyalty to country and loyalty to his fair lady. The adolescent girl was expected to be an attractive, tender and submissive mate to her spouse.

Children of lower social classes in the beginning of the modern culture were not subjected to any preparation or training for adult responsibility. As was the case in an earlier culture, only privileged youth enjoyed the benefits of higher education. The place of the child and of the adolescent in a social setting was tremendously influenced by the industrial revolution which brough about significant changes in the entire functioning of the family as a unit. The provision of life necessary was taken out of the house, thus influencing the closeness of co-operative effort within the family unit. This resulted in significant changes in adult attitude towards children and adolescents.

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In the beginning of the eighteenth century, some schooling had been made available for children of all social classes. However, these education opportunities was subsidized and controlled by the church. No attention was paid during this time to the developmental needs of children and adolescents. The existing situation took a turn in the nineteenth century which witnessed a considerable amount of disagreement among political leaders, religious leaders, educators and physiocrafts who were concerned with growth and developmental needs of children and adolescents. This disagreement centered around the purpose to be served by the extent of education that should be made available to children and adolescents. The experimental contributions of physiocrafts, biologists and sociologists of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries gradually led to the development of a new attitude towards the maturing adolescents. These new attitudes were characterized by a greater appreciation on individual differences among young people and more intelligent understanding of problems of adjustment that arise in their struggle to achieve adult status. As a result of this shift, adolescents today enjoy more freedom for action and decision making during their maturing years.

The present culture is so complex, that it does not permit any individual to live a simple life. The differences that are observed in various social groups reflect the complexities of the present cultural developments and their impact on the life of individuals. The present perplexities of adolescents are due to the significant increases in the developmental tasks which are to be accomplished. Consequently, there are too many stress-arousing situations in the modern civlization which make the task of developing extremely difficult.

Adolescence has been regarded as a crucial phase of growth and development by almost all societies, past and present, sophisticated or primitive, whose chief concern was with keeping the vitality of youth within control. However, recognition of individual and social problems

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specific to adolescence appear to be of relatively recent origin. A brief survey of the development of the recognition is therefore, quite relevant. The recognition by Egyptians, Jews, Greeks and Romans of the significance of preparing young men and women so as to enable them to assume their appropriate adult functions carried memories of the rituals of primitive initiation ceremonies. This early recognition of the importance of adolescence had a profound effect on later writers who had very little to say beyond an emphasis on the discreteness of different periods of development. It was also assumed by these writers that the transition to adult status took place at some point during development at which judicious admonition could be directed by a parent to a child or by a teacher to a pupil.

The belief concerning the existence of distinct stage of development was held by many thinkers. These stages follow maturing of emotions and are terminated by the growth of intellect. The Aristotelian belief concerning the existence of distinct stages of human development was also reflected in the writing of Vives who mentioned that the course of learning is from the senses to the imagination and from that to the mind. Comenius in the next century advocated the division of schooling into four/six yearly periods, emphasizing the following sequence of development : first sense, then memory and imagination, next the understanding and the judgement and finally the will.

The idea was further elaborated by Rousseau who emphasized that "each age and condition of life has a perfection and maturity of its own". Besides this emphasis on distinctness of the stages of development, Rousseau also made a suggestion concerning the relationship between the individual's growth and what he considered to be the history of the race. The child from birth to the age of two was considered to be in a state of diffuse feelings and largely unaware of himself. The second stage falling between the years from two to twelve was characterized by domination of the senses, lack of abilities to reason, moral consideration, and physical necessities. The third period lasting from

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twelve to fifteen was regarded as the period of preadolescence. This phase of development is characterized by self-sufficiency, feeling of increased strength, appearance of intellect and ability to direct and regulate activities towards certain goals. The fourth period known as the period of adolescence extends from fifteen to about twenty-five. It was observed that there is a strong awakening of sex interests during this period. It is this period which marks the beginning of social life. These theoretical formulations had a profound influence upon educational philosophy in many countries of the world. The modern educational philosphy emphasizing the need suited to different age groups echoes the earlier formulations by Rousseau and other contemporary philosophers.

These earlier formulations need to be considered from the point of view of their source and methodology of research followed in arriving at such formulations. Rousseau was never a devoted teacher of child development. However, like Kent, Pestalozzi and Seguin he could profoundly influence the educational practice through his writing. Particularly, the hypothesis concerning the relation between an individual's growth and racial history not only attracted the attention of his successors, but also influenced G. Stanley Hall who initiated the child study movement in America in the beginning of the present century. It should be noted here that most of these earlier formulations concerning adolescence were not based on sound scientific observations.

Views of G. Stanley Hall

The psychology of adolescence emerged as a field of study in modern psychology as a result of the work of G. Stanley Hall who assembled monumental mass of data on adolescence. He was very much impressed by the doctrine of evolution which he tried to apply to the developing social sciences in order to bring scientific precision but he could rarely achieve the application. The mental realm of children was explored by analyzing self-expression revealed through

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essays written by a large number of children and by directed interviews. He also administered a questionnaire in order to study children's minds through reminiscences which were set down by adults. His zeal for a systematic study of adolescence is revealed in his attempt to bring the findings of nineteenth century studies in physiology, anthropology and experimental psychology to bear upon the investigation which he undertook.

He actaully stands midway between functional generalizations of the ninettenth century and observations based on sound experimental research of the present time. The research findingswhich he reported, though not very sound from the point of view of present educational advancement in research methodology, did much to establish the study of child behaviour on scientific lines.

The voluminous data that he gathered from various sources served to establish the boundary between behaviour characteristics of adolescence and behaviour that precedes it in childhood. He has presented a very vivid and graphic description of the period of childhood, emphasizing the various characteristics which are not yet fully developed. Adolescence was considered to be a period in which new birth occurred in personality development of the individual. This sudden change in personality was believed to be due to marked changes which according to Hall resulted from sexual maturing. These changes are so rapid and pronounced that they have a widespread effect on the entire functioning of the individual. This period of adolescence has been regarded as a period of 'storm and stress' in which the individual becomes artisitc, emotionally unstable and highly unpredictable. Some of early followers of Hall explained the idea that the period of adolescence was a period of life characterized by abnormality of behaviour which was believed to be natural to that period.

Along with the emphasize on the distinctness of the periods of development and on adolescence characterized by stress and strom, Stanley Hall made a very comprehensive survey of the research findings of the latter part of the

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nineteenth century. He utilized these findings to explain adolescent development in relation to social life, religion, education, crime and sexual maturing. His writings have had profound influence on some of the current publications on youth and educational requirements.

The chief weakness of Hall's theory of adolescence are to be found in its failure to consider the effects of social relationships, in its failure to interpret adequately those cases which deviate from the average of a group. Increased scientific knowledge has shown that what was once considered to be abnormalities of adolescence are now merely normal phenomena which are present in almost every adolescent boy and girl. The emphasis on the distinctness of the period of development clearly ignores the continuity of human development. Hall has considered the period of adolescence to be of storm and stress which are biologically determined. This observation is not supported in view of the fact that the disturbances are not found in all adolescents and that there is no close correspondence between physiological changes on the one hand and adjustment difficulties on the other. Researchers have noticed that emotional tensions persist long after sexual maturing has been completed.

It has also been observed that social and economic pressures are largely responsible for difficulties experienced by adolescents. These facts have been demonstrated in some of the recent studies on primitive people in ancient civilizations where maturing followed childhood with only a short time interval during which sexual maturing took place. Each year as scientific research brings to light new data regarding adolescents, there is increasing justification for rejecting the old beliefs which until recently were widely accepted. Interpreting adolescence within the framework of the doctrine of evolution, Hall made judgement which is not acceptable to many modern psychologists.

The process of growing up has undoubtedly been accompanied by considerable amount of stress in many parts of the world. The observation of difficulties of adjust-

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ment has led many investigators to study the nature of adolescence and the requirements of the youth. In some societies where there is relatively greater freedom from strain, there is a notable absence of observable conflict. Adolescence is undoubtedly a period in which rapid physical changes occur. The individual at this period becomes able to pass from the exploration of his environment to actual experimentation with realities of adult life. It is, however, supported that this development needs to be described in terms of anyting so speculative as a recapitulation of the evolution of the race. Moreover, human history is not quite so simple as was formerly thought of and does not fall into the clearly defined classes postulated by the theorists. The life of the group which was described as savage has been now found to be more complex than was thought by the philosophers of the eighteenth or the nineteenth century. Lastly, human development is both more continuous, more complex and more highly differentiated than the psychologists of the past and the current writers would lead one to believe.

Views of Cultural Anthropologists

Hall's concept of adolescence though limited in its application, carried within it the roots of two new sources of insight which were responsible for the modification of the concept of adolescence. The monumental work of anthropologists which was referred to by Hall in the second volume of Adolescence brought about a great change in the attitudes held by adults toward adolescence. The other great influence was from depth psychology. The discovery that social expectations about adolescence vary from culture to culture and that adolescents mirror these expectations in the attitudes they adopt, was made by social anthropologists as a result of their study of adolescents in primitive societies.

The work of Ruth Benedict, Margaret Mead and others have marked effects on the age-old attitude toward adolescence in Western societies. It was recognized that social

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factors are largely responsible for adolescents behaviour. There is no doubt that the environment offers unlimited possibilities for the modification of an individual's behaviour. Even the onset of puberty appears to be influenced by environmental factors. The work of social anthropologists created an appearance of bewildering flexibility which went far to preclude any theory of adolescence from having more than local validity. The Samoan adolescent girls as described by Margaret Mead did not experience any disturbances during adolescence while girls of their own age among the Manus of New Guinea were prepared into a rigorously disciplined adulthood. Margaret Mead's studies of Arapesh, Mundugumor, and the Tchambli cast a serious doubt on sex differences in temperament. Dr. Leta Hollingworth whose standard work, "The Psychology of the Adolescent", published in 1930 revealed in her introduction that the methods of study on social conditions have been so modified within the twenty-five years just passed that any preference to Hall's work would seem to be of historic value rather than of practical value.

The theoretical formulations of Fred, Adler and Jung though differing in certain respects, have emphasized that adolescence is a second chance to restore personality distortions resulting from unpleasant experiences of the first few important years of life. Adolescence, as described by Freudians is, the influence of adulthood in which the individual is not only faced by the challenge of adult sexuality but also by reappearance of emotional disturbances which were left unresolved during earlier years of infancy. If conditions are favourable, the conflicts and emotional strains that are experienced during adolescence, might be resolved to gain stability of emotional life.

The Adlerians approached adolescence from a different veiw point. According to this approach, every individual tries to overcome his feelings of inferiority and to attain his worth. It is during such strivings that the individual develops his own styles of life. This style of life may be directed towards reality, co-operative relationship with others, and

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achievement, or it may be directed towards retreat into pretence, domination and show. The adolescent boy is tempted to retreat from challenge due to the presence of an acute sense of uncertainty and inferiority or he may compensate for such feelings by his active striving. Usually the increased awareness takes him towards responsiblity, co-operative relationship and useful chievement. His experience during adolescence will largely determine the directions of his development. Jung has primarily emphasized the development of personal identity during adolescence. The individual's unique experiences and relationships are responsible for the development of feelings and attitudes which interact with age-old images and crude impulses within the psyche. This inner world is more readily apprehended during adolescence.

These thumb-nail sketches do far less than justice to depth psychology as a source of insight into adolescence. Its chief contribution has been to bring out the significance of the complex relationship between the young individual and the socio-cultural matrix in which the individual grows. During adolescence, according to depth psychologists the inner world of personality is in intense movement and very sensitive to outisde influences. Depth psychology has pointed out this dynamism of adolescence which in actual practice is disregarded.

There are some other important trends of psychology which have influenced the current thinking about adolescence. The fact of individual differences which has been established by a great body of research warns against setting up any specific descriptions of a child at a particular age. The corollary to this recognition of variabilty has been the working out of patterns of behavioral attainment for certain ages. Arnold Gesell and his co-workers have tried to show the apparent absurdity of looking for the standard child of any age. They have done this by presenting broad patterns of behaviour and attainment characteristics of certain ages. There is a great deal of overlap from year to year which makes it clear that the various phases will follow in

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sequence during adolescence. It would, however, be erroneous to link a particular phase with particular age. We are not quite sure that all phases will appear and that they will appear in a usual order. The work on variability leads to the conclusion that we can reasonably infer the trends towards development. It would be unwise to expect a child to be or not to be any particular kind of person at any particular time.

Kurt Lewin and his co-workers have made a useful contribution by preventing a very vivid diagrammatical presentation of the social forces at work during adolescence. The adolescent boy is viewed by Lewin as one who is driven out from childish activities due to his increased age and status. Both the child and the adult have a clearly defined region of operation but the adolescent is highly unaware of his roles and status. This according to Lewin is a source of conflict which is indexed by sensitivity, sense of isolation, ostentation and aggresiveness on the part of adolescents. Lewin did not add anything more than what was known about adolescence but his method of mapping individual social field did sensitize students of adolescence.

Moreover, Lewin tried to create an impression that an individual is nothing more than the residuum of the forces operating on him. This emphasis was offset by Gordon Allport who introduced the concept of functional autonomy, the capacity of individuals to wield their interests, attitudes and motives into enduring systems of personal life. According to him a person creates his individual uniqueness in the process of becoming himself. The understanding of adolescent development was much more facilitated by the work of Moreno and his co-workers. Moreno in his sociometric studies revealed the fact that children and adolescents are living in a network of interpersonal relationships which promote or inhibit personal development.

Following the theoretical vigour of the thirties came a long period of waiting for the synthesis of the work which was done previously. In 1948 Fleming published a book entitled "Adolescence : Its Social Psychology". In his work

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be brought into relevance for adolescent psyhology, findings from the fields of anthropology, physiology, medicine, psychometrics and sociometry. The materials relevant for adolescent psychology was so vast that the need for some new basis of synthesis was strongly felt. It was during this time that the concept of development task emerged. Havighurst in 'Human Develoment and Education' defined developmental task as a task which arises at or about a certain period in the fields of an individual. The successful achievement of the developmental task leads to happiness and success with later tasks.

Another concept which has added so much to our understanding of adolescence is the concept of mental health. The assumption underlying this concept is that, of all the possible reactions that are made to situations, to environment and to people, some result in personal happiness while others are negative and unhealthy. Havinghurst in his definition of the concept of developmental task emphasized that tasks arise to test an individual at each stage of growth and the successful accomplishment of the appropriate task assures a proper state of preparation for the next stage of development. Havighurst has listed ten developmental tasks which are faced by adolescents. Other authors have also suggested similar tasks. Kuhlen in "The Psychology of Adolescent Development", has mentioned only four areas : sex-social adjustments, ideological adjustment, vocational adjustment and adjustment for achievement of freedom from parents. Other lists could be mentioned but it is the concept of developmental tasks which is of value rather than any particular list.

It is by now clear that adolescents live in a very complex society and strive to adjust to the demands of the society. The present day societies are changing so rapidly that the adult expectations of adolescent behaviour is bound to change. These changes in adult expectations will make it even harder for the adolescents to know that society expects of them. As one author puts it : Society today speaks to adolescent with many and often discordant voices. We have, therefore, to be constantly on the alert to keep abreast

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of adolescents. Many important principles regarding adolescent development have been available from past research but there is a strong need for supplementing these principles by repeatedly probing deeper into the life of adolescents. This attitude has resulted in some of the current publications about adolescence.

A study entitled "Eighty Thousand Adolescents" appeared in 1950 in which a comprehensive survey of adolescent life has been made in the Midlands of England. In 1954, Pearl Jephcott published his book "Some Young People" in which adolescent life has been explored in three contrasting areas. Another important survey was published in 1957 by the Australian Council for Educational Research describing the way of life of adolescents in Sydney. In his book "Adolescent Society" which was published in 1961, James Coleman made a thorough research to explore and analyse the social systems of ten high schools of varied communities. The problem of group membership of adolescents aged 14 to 16 was studied on an extensive basis by the Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Researches, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Similar survey was made for boys aged 11 through 13 by the Survey Research Centre, of the University of Michigan. The first study was published in 1955 and the second study was published in 1960. The problems of adolescent girls were also studied by the Survey Research of the University of Michigan and the work was published in 1957. The research into the current problems of adolescent girls was carried out by James Hemming and reported in "Problems of Adolescent Girls" which was published in 1960. The book intended to provide for parents, teachers and others concerned with adolescents, a useful additional view-point regarding the nature of adolescent life in present-day society. Much of the conflict that arises between adolescents and their parents is the result of the parental attempt to bear to their children the attitudes and principles which were applied to them by their parents. In place of such rigidity, it is very necessary to be aware of what adolescence is like for each generation and adolescents as it comes along.

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